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Integrating College and Community

EDITORIAL

NEWEST portent of significant change in the junior-college movement is a growing abandonment of the term "junior college" in favor of the more promising appellation "community college." Two recent evidences of this trend may be mentioned. One is the recommendation for the change made in recent reports like those of the subcommittee of the National Council of Chief State School Officers appointed to study education for the thirteenth and fourteenth grades and of the President's Commission on Higher Education. A second evidence is the actual substitution, for the name "junior college," of the title "community college" or merely "college" with the community-service function implied.

Modification of service of an educational institution does not come, however, simply by casting off one

name and assuming another. A junior college which has confined its program to the diminutive service suggested by that name does not broaden its scope of operation by becoming a community college nominally and not functionally. What, then, is implied in the trend toward use of the designation "community college"? What must be done to make it apply in fact as well as in name? Use of the title "community college" places on the institution the obligation to develop and maintain four conditions in the local situation.

First, and of fundamental importance, the offerings of the institution must be oriented to the educational needs of the population, both youth and adult, in the community. The college must carry out a real local-service function, and its personnel must hold a true local-service attitude.

Second, the community-college concept must be introduced, nurtured, and fully developed in the minds of laymen as well as the local school personnel. Recently the writer visited eighteen cities in which institutions of the commu-

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nity-college type were operating. In each city he interviewed approximately ten lay persons prominent in the community. These interviews reflected an extremely superficial acquaintance with the basic nature of the local institution. Such shallow acquaintance on the part of the public is not characteristic of a locality with a true community college. Rather, individuals in the community should feel a personal identification with the college, an identification more penetrating than loyalty merely to its athletic organizations.

Third, it appears logical to hold that a community college should be locally controlled. Among private colleges the issue of which agency should have jurisdiction over the institution is readily resolved. Among public colleges, however, this problem is serious because the institution is often subject not only to state and local controls but also to those of the state university. To be sure, responsibility for general supervision of public community colleges should rest in the state department of education. Furthermore, financial support based on a program of state aid may necessitate further control. Beyond responsibility to state and local community, however, it would appear that unnecessarily awkward situations are created when the community college is made to serve several masters.

The fourth condition which must obtain is a close working relation between the college and other community agencies. This holds for both private and public community colleges. Two groups of agencies should, with the college, constitute a co-ordinated network of community-centered institutions. One of these is comprised of the other educational institutions, with which the college program should be closely articulated to preclude wasted and duplicated effort. The other is the industrial and commercial enterprises, which can supply information and facilities that will enable the college to make the utmost contribution to the locality.

Specific procedures which can be used to produce close integration of college and community are not elaborated here. These procedures, however, should rest on two basic programs. The first essential is an incessant, broadly defined program of public relations concerning the community-service outlook of the college. The second necessity is a program of research at the community level to insure constant awareness of community demands, to afford sound bases for curriculum revisions, and to evaluate the outcomes of efforts extended. Community colleges ought never to be vulnerable to the criticism that they are flying under false colors.

SEBASTIAN V. MARTORANA

Analysis of Junior-College Growth

J E S S E P . B O G U E
A N D
S H I R L E Y S A N D E R S

THE growth of the junior-college movement is well known to those who have been in it or who have been students in the field of junior-college education. If, however, we may judge by the many inquiries that come to the Washington office of the American Association of Junior Colleges, there are many people who are unfamiliar with the story. It may be of value to these persons, therefore, to include in this analysis of growth some reference to the questions that have been asked. The writers realize that the story has been told many times with careful and complete documentation.¹ They beg the indulgence of the readers who know it in the interest of those who do not.

Perhaps Lewis Institute, founded in Chicago in 1896, later merged with Armour Institute of Technology and now the Illinois Institute of Technology, was the first junior col-

lege. Decatur Baptist College, Decatur, Texas, was founded in 1891 and gave the first junior-college instruction in 1897. This college is still in existence and has celebrated its first half-century of history. The first public junior college was organized at Joliet, Illinois, in 1902 under the able leadership of J. Stanley Brown, who was inspired and encouraged by William Rainey Harper, the first president of the University of Chicago. Harper usually is credited with being father of the movement and with the coinage of the name in connection with the lower-division instruction and organization of the College of Arts and Sciences of the University of Chicago. It may be said, then, that Decatur Baptist College and Joliet Junior College are the first two

^{1a)} F. M. McDowell, *The Junior College*. United States Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 35, 1919.

^{b)} Leonard V. Koos, *The Junior-College Movement*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1925.

^{c)} Walter Crosby Eells, *The Junior College*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1931.

^{d)} Phebe Ward, "Development of the Junior College Movement," *American Junior Colleges*, chap. ii. Edited by Jesse P. Bogue. Washington: American Council on Education, 1948 (second edition).

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junior colleges still in existence, private and public, respectively.

Number of Colleges and Enrolments

The first "Junior College Directory" was compiled and published in 1928. Since that time the annual analysis of growth has usually started with data assembled at that time. The 1949 Directory will depart from this practice and attempt to use figures reaching back to 1900. The figures for 1900 are largely estimated, but those for 1915 were compiled by McDowell and those

for 1922 and 1927 by Koos. The following tabulation conveys something of the total picture of the growth of the movement, and Figures 1 and 2 portray graphically the growth of institutions and enrolments. Students who may be interested in tracing the historical rootlets of the movement during the latter part of the nineteenth century and the larger development since the beginning of the twentieth century may do so by consulting the authoritative sources before mentioned.

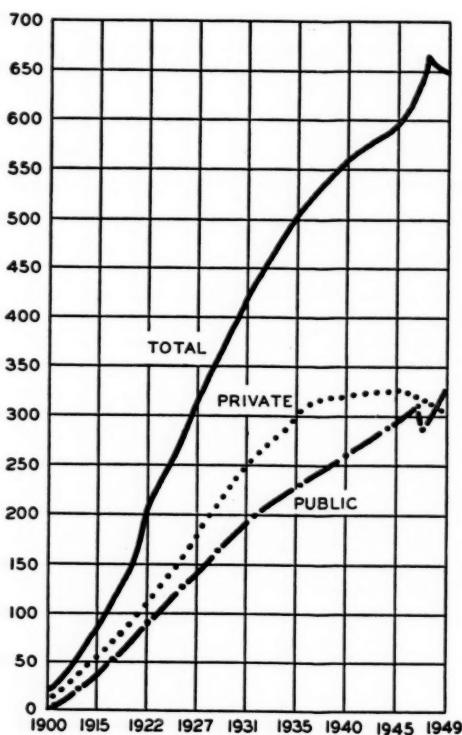


FIG. 1.—Number of public and private junior colleges and of both from 1900 to 1949.

| Year | Number of Colleges | Enrolment | Percentage Increase in Enrolment |
|------|--------------------|-----------|----------------------------------|
| 1900 | 8 | 100 | |
| 1915 | 74 | 2,363 | |
| 1922 | 207 | 16,031 | |
| 1927 | 325 | 35,630 | |
| 1928 | 408 | 50,529 | |
| 1929 | 405 | 54,438 | 7.7 |
| 1930 | 429 | 67,627 | 24.2 |
| 1931 | 436 | 74,088 | 9.6 |
| 1932 | 469 | 97,631 | 31.8 |
| 1933 | 493 | 96,555 | - 1.1 |
| 1934 | 514 | 103,592 | 7.2 |
| 1935 | 521 | 107,807 | 4.1 |
| 1936 | 518 | 122,311 | 13.5 |
| 1937 | 528 | 129,106 | 5.6 |
| 1938 | 553 | 136,623 | 5.8 |
| 1939 | 556 | 155,588 | 13.9 |
| 1940 | 575 | 196,710 | 26.4 |
| 1941 | 610 | 236,162 | 20.1 |
| 1942 | 627 | 267,406 | 13.2 |
| 1943 | 624 | 314,349 | 17.6 |
| 1944 | 586 | 325,151 | 3.4 |
| 1945 | 584 | 249,788 | - 23.2 |
| 1946 | 591 | 251,290 | 0.6 |
| 1947 | 648 | 294,475 | 17.2 |
| 1948 | 663 | 455,048 | 54.5 |
| 1949 | 651 | 500,536 | 10.1 |

The writers wish to make clear and to emphasize the fact that the figures for 1949 are those covering the entire academic year of 1947-

48, including the summer session. They are not based on the enrolment of any one semester or day in the academic year. As will be seen later in this analysis, full-time, special, and adult students are included, and these enrolments may be found by states, by institutions, and by totals. Summaries by states, as found in the January issue of the *Junior College Journal* and the 1949 Directory, include institutions in the United States, Alaska, and the Canal Zone, of which there are 641, and 10 institutions located in Canada and four other countries. These 10 junior colleges have a combined enrolment of 2,487 students. Five of these are members of the Association, and all are interested in the essential philosophy of the movement. For these reasons they have been included in the tabulation of data. Two of these colleges are public, and eight are privately controlled.

The tabulations of enrolment figures are approximately on a comparable basis for students on the college level of instruction. They include 49,107 students in the junior colleges or lower divisions of 46 universities and senior colleges listed in the 1949 Directory. This additional enrolment amounts to 12,528 students. On the other hand, students in the high-school years of 41 junior colleges, organized either as four-year or three-year units, have not been included.

The number of junior colleges and enrolments by regions follow:

| Region | Number | Enrolment |
|---------------------|--------|-----------|
| New England | 45 | 19,529 |
| Middle States | 82 | 51,090 |
| North Central | 213 | 113,151 |
| Southern | 201 | 97,118 |
| Northwest | 23 | 19,963 |
| Western (Calif.) .. | 75 | 196,185 |

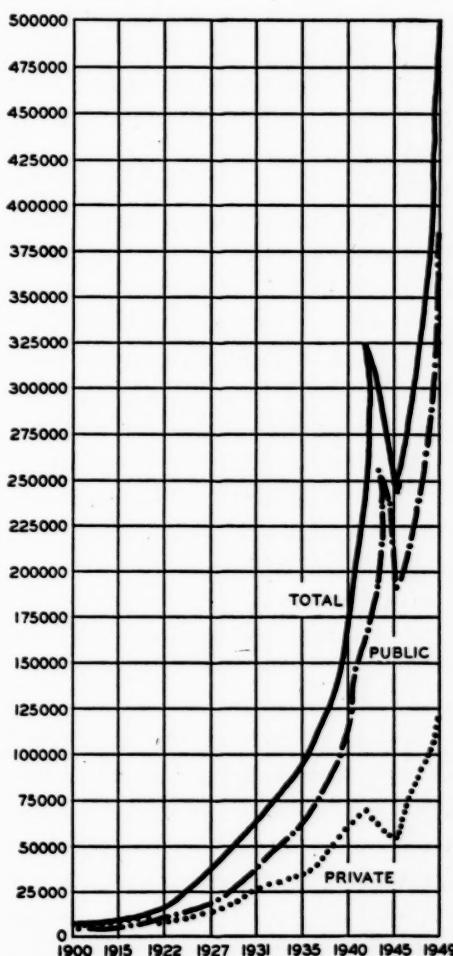


FIG. 2.—Enrolments in public and private junior colleges and in both from 1900 to 1949.

It will be seen that California still has the largest number of colleges of any state, the largest enrolment, and the largest increase in enrolment during the past year. Enrolment of students in California in the 1948 report was 171,865, showing a gain of 24,320 students in the 1949 report. Texas is second, with 62 institutions and 50,691 students. There are 23 states with 10 or more junior colleges, and only two states, Nevada and New Mexico, with none.

Public and Private Colleges

Of the entire group of 651 junior colleges, 328 (51 per cent) are publicly controlled institutions, while 323 (49 per cent) are under private control. Corresponding figures for last year were 326 publicly and 337 privately controlled. The publicly controlled institutions have much the greater proportion of the enrolment. No less than 76 per cent (last year 75 per cent), or 378,844 students, are found in the publicly controlled junior colleges, as compared with 121,692 in the privately controlled institutions.

Increased enrolments are found in the publicly controlled junior colleges in 32 states, and decreased enrolments in 14 states. The publicly controlled institutions show a net increase of 39,593 students, or 12 per cent, as compared with an increase last year of 57 per cent. The largest increase in public junior college enrolment occurred in Califor-

nia, with a gain of 24,320. California continues to have the largest public enrolment of any state. Texas is second and Illinois third.

Increased enrolments are found in the privately controlled junior colleges in 31 states and decreased enrolments in 15 states, the net increase being 5,895 students, or 5 per cent, compared with an increase of 48 per cent in 1946-47. New York has the largest enrolment in the junior colleges which are privately controlled.

Institutional Changes

The names of 35 institutions which appeared in the 1948 Directory are omitted in the 1949 Directory. Ten of these have become senior colleges; five have been consolidated with, or replaced by, other junior colleges; thirteen have closed the junior-college department or otherwise changed their form of organization; the remaining seven were dropped for various other reasons.

The 1949 Directory contains the names of 25 junior colleges which did not appear in the previous year. Thirteen of these are publicly controlled junior colleges, and 12 are privately controlled ones. Fifteen of these 25 began junior-college work for the first time this year. The remaining ten have been in existence for one or more years but have not been listed previously. The names of the 15 new institutions definitely reported as begin-

ning junior-college work in 1947-48 follow. Eleven of these are publicly controlled institutions; four are privately controlled.

Orange Coast College, California
 Pensacola Junior College, Florida
 Francis T. Nicholls Junior College, Louisiana
 Itawamba Junior College, Mississippi
 Northeast Junior College, Mississippi
 Maryknoll Junior College, New Jersey
 Morehead City Technical Institute, N. C.
 Behrend Undergraduate Center, Pennsylvania
 Harrisburg Undergraduate Center, Pennsylvania
 Swarthmore Undergraduate Center, Pennsylvania
 Gwynedd-Mercy Junior College, Pennsylvania
 Allen Military Academy, Texas
 South Texas Junior College, Texas
 Northeast Agricultural Junior College, Wyoming
 Southeast Center, University of Wyoming

Types of Institutions

The junior college prevailingly is a coeducational institution, 506 (78 per cent) of this type being reported. Six institutions for men are found in the publicly controlled group; one institution for women; all the others are coeducational. In the privately controlled group, 48 are for men, 91 for women, and 184 coeducational.

Of the publicly controlled institutions, one is federally controlled (Canal Zone), 69 are state controlled, 81 district, 20 union district, 1 joint union district, 24 county, 10 joint county, 120 local, and 2 province.

Of the privately controlled group, 180 (56 per cent) are reported as under denominational auspices, the Catholics leading with 43 institu-

tions, followed by the Methodists, 38; Baptists, 32; Lutherans, 17; Presbyterians, 14; and 22 other denominations with one to four each, 36.

Of the privately controlled institutions not under denominational auspices, 109 are operated on a nonprofit basis with control vested in a board of trustees, while 34 are classified as proprietary.

Twenty-one of the institutions listed (3.2 per cent) are Negro junior colleges. All but six of these are privately controlled institutions. In addition, there is one junior college for Indian students.

Size of Colleges

The sizes of the 651 junior colleges for which enrolments are reported in the 1949 Directory may be summarized as follows:

| Enrolment | Number of Colleges | | |
|-------------------|--------------------|--------|---------|
| | Total | Public | Private |
| 1- 49 .. | 33 | 7 | 26 |
| 50- 99 .. | 73 | 22 | 51 |
| 100- 199 .. | 131 | 47 | 84 |
| 200- 299 .. | 90 | 41 | 49 |
| 300- 399 .. | 69 | 31 | 38 |
| 400- 499 .. | 41 | 26 | 15 |
| 500- 599 .. | 35 | 20 | 15 |
| 600- 699 .. | 25 | 10 | 15 |
| 700- 799 .. | 21 | 18 | 3 |
| 800- 899 .. | 17 | 14 | 3 |
| 900- 999 .. | 14 | 14 | 0 |
| 1,000-1,999 .. | 55 | 39 | 16 |
| 2,000-2,999 .. | 14 | 9 | 5 |
| 3,000-3,999 .. | 9 | 8 | 1 |
| 4,000-4,999 .. | 9 | 8 | 1 |
| 5,000-5,999 .. | 2 | 2 | 0 |
| 6,000-6,999 .. | 4 | 3 | 1 |
| 7,000-7,999 .. | 3 | 3 | 0 |
| 8,000-8,999 .. | 2 | 2 | 0 |
| 9,000 and over .. | 4 | 4 | 0 |
| Total ... | 651 | 328 | 323 |

While the junior college is still a comparatively small institution in many parts of the country, too small for the greatest educational efficiency in many cases, yet it has grown steadily except in wartime. Seventy-three per cent of those with fewer than 100 students are privately controlled. It is significant that there are 324 institutions which have enrolments of 300 or greater; that 102 exceed 1,000; that 47 exceed 2,000; and 15 exceed 5,000.

Twelve California public junior colleges report enrolments of special students and adults in excess of 1,000 each. The total California enrolment of special students and adults is 105,586 as compared with 90,599 regular students.

The striking increase in the number of special students, including adults, is a phenomenon of the past ten years, and it reflects the increasing attention being given by junior colleges to their opportunities for service in the field of adult education. For each of the five years from 1933 to 1937, the specials comprised less than 15 per cent of the total enrolment. Beginning in 1938, however, there was a steady increase, reaching a peak during the war years, when the normal enrolment of special students was augmented by thousands taking E.S.M.W.T., cadet nurse, and other special war courses. Since the cessation of these courses there has naturally been some leveling-off, but

the numbers of special students remain large. Data for the past eleven years are as follows:

| Year | Total | Special | Percent-age Special |
|---------|---------|---------|---------------------|
| 1939 .. | 155,588 | 33,204 | 21.3 |
| 1940 .. | 196,710 | 52,849 | 26.9 |
| 1941 .. | 236,162 | 73,371 | 31.1 |
| 1942 .. | 267,406 | 102,369 | 38.3 |
| 1943 .. | 314,349 | 158,425 | 50.4 |
| 1944 .. | 325,151 | 193,360 | 59.5 |
| 1945 .. | 249,788 | 161,791 | 64.8 |
| 1946 .. | 251,290 | 156,174 | 62.1 |
| 1947 .. | 294,475 | 140,099 | 47.6 |
| 1948 .. | 455,048 | 176,837 | 38.9 |
| 1949 .. | 500,536 | 184,796 | 36.9 |

The largest enrolment of regular students is found in the Los Angeles City College with 21,024.

Average enrolments for the past ten years and also for the years 1929-30 and 1935-36 follow:

| Year | Average for: | | |
|------------|--------------|--------|---------|
| | All Colleges | Public | Private |
| 1929-30 .. | 162 | 240 | 115 |
| 1935-36 .. | 255 | 406 | 136 |
| 1938-39 .. | 349 | 556 | 181 |
| 1939-40 .. | 397 | 652 | 202 |
| 1940-41 .. | 429 | 707 | 203 |
| 1941-42 .. | 514 | 872 | 223 |
| 1942-43 .. | 555 | 998 | 201 |
| 1943-44 .. | 438 | 733 | 189 |
| 1944-45 .. | 434 | 723 | 188 |
| 1945-46 .. | 454 | 687 | 235 |
| 1946-47 .. | 686 | 1,040 | 343 |
| 1947-48 .. | 769 | 1,155 | 376 |

This analysis indicates that both the publicly and the privately controlled institutions have made a marked increase in average size in the past decade. The 1947-48 aver-

ages for all junior colleges are the largest in their history.

Enrolment by Classes

Enrolment by classes may be summarized as follows, the percentage distribution for last year being added for comparison:

| Class | Number | Percentage | |
|--------------|---------|------------|---------|
| | | 1947-48 | 1946-47 |
| Freshman .. | 196,510 | 39.2 | 46.3 |
| Sophomore .. | 119,080 | 23.8 | 14.8 |
| Special | 54,616 | 10.9 | 38.9 |
| Adults | 130,330 | 26.1 | |
| Total | 500,536 | 100.0 | 100.0 |

If the special students are eliminated from consideration, 62 out of each 100 regular students were Freshmen in 1947-48, compared with 76 the previous year.

Number of Faculty

The Directory reports 13,902 full-time instructors and 6,966 on a part-time basis in 651 institutions, or a total of 20,868 instructors this year as compared with 20,935 last year. This is an average of 32.0 instructors per institution as compared with 31.6 last year. The 6,966 part-time instructors are equivalent to 2,421 full-time instructors. This makes a total of 16,323 full-time instructors or 25.0 full-time instructors per institution.

Accreditation

Of the entire group of 651 institutions, 619, or 95 per cent, are

accredited by some accrediting agency, national, regional, or state. Only 193, however, are members of any of the five regional associations of colleges and secondary schools. A summary of such membership follows:

| | |
|---------------------------------|----|
| New England Association | 12 |
| Middle States Association | 20 |
| North Central Association | 67 |
| Southern Association | 73 |
| Northwest Association | 21 |

California is not in the territory of any of the regional accrediting agencies, nor, of course, are the institutions in foreign countries.

Association Membership

The Directory indicates that on January 1, 1949, the American Association of Junior Colleges had 440 active and 25 provisional institutional members. Thus 71 per cent of all the junior colleges hold membership in the Association. This may be compared with 56 per cent membership in 1939 and 70 per cent last year. Of the 328 public junior colleges, 234 (71 per cent) are members; of the 323 private junior colleges, 230 (71 per cent) are members.

Nine states and the Canal Zone have records of 100 per cent membership in the Association, as follows: Colorado, 8; Utah, 4; West Virginia, 4; Idaho, 3; Vermont, 3; Arizona, 2; Rhode Island, 2; Canal Zone, 1; Delaware, 1; and New Hampshire, 1. Other high membership states are Kansas (19 out of

22), Michigan (12 out of 13), Georgia (18 out of 20), Illinois (23 out of 24), and Massachusetts (21 out of 23).

Changes in Administrators

A comparison of the 1949 and 1948 Directories reveals a change in the administrative heads this year on the part of 92 junior colleges, or 14 per cent of the entire group, as compared with 12 per cent last year. In the publicly controlled junior colleges the change this year was 15 per cent; in the privately controlled colleges, 14 per cent.

Type of Organization

The information on "years included" is summarized as follows:

| | |
|----------------------------------|-----|
| Four-year junior colleges | 37 |
| Three-year junior colleges | 6 |
| Two-year junior colleges | 603 |
| One-year junior colleges | 5 |

The two-year organization is evidently the prevailing type (93 per cent), but there is considerable interest in the four-year type, whether in public-school systems as part of the "6-4-4" plan, or in privately controlled institutions where the last two academy or preparatory-school years are included with the two common junior-college years. Last year 38 four-year institutions were reported.

The following table shows the distribution, by states and control, of the four-year junior colleges reported this year.

| State | Public | Private |
|----------------------|--------|---------|
| Arkansas | 1 | |
| California | 10 | 1 |
| Georgia | .. | 2 |
| Illinois | .. | 1 |
| Iowa | 1 | 2 |
| Kansas | 1 | 1 |
| Kentucky | .. | 1 |
| Minnesota | .. | 1 |
| Mississippi | 6 | 1 |
| Missouri | 2 | .. |
| North Carolina | .. | 3 |
| Tennessee | .. | 1 |
| Texas | 1 | .. |
| Utah | 2 | .. |
| Virginia | .. | 1 |
| Total | 22 | 15 |

Of the four-year institutions this year, 22 are publicly controlled, 15 privately controlled. Of the public group, 3 are state, 7 are district, 2 are union district, 4 are joint county, 1 is county, and 5 are local or municipal junior colleges.

In a fully functioning four-year unit it would be expected that the enrolment in the first two years would be substantially greater than in the upper two years. In only five of the publicly controlled and in only one of the privately controlled institutions, however, was the "lower-division" enrolment greater than the "upper-division" enrolment. The total upper-division enrolment in the publicly controlled four-year institutions was 31,306; lower-division, 10,958. In the privately controlled institutions the figures were: upper-division, 3,929; lower-division, 1,202.

Letters of inquiry and group discussions regarding the junior col-

lege sometimes raise the question about the growth of the four-year type of organization. According to Walter C. Eells,² the proposal for the 6-4-4 type of organization was made in California in 1908. By 1930, according to this same author,

²Walter Crosby Eells, "What Manner of Child Shall This Be?" *Junior College Journal*, I (February, 1931), 322.

there were not more than 10 four-year junior colleges in the United States. The present writers examined the analyses of growth as published in the *Journal* since 1930 and found the following facts: in 1935, there were 21 reported; 1940 showed 27; in 1944 there were 37; in 1947 there were 40; in 1948 there were 38; and for the 1949 Directory there are 37.

Junior-College Teacher-Retirement Plans: General Information

JOSEPH B. DAVIS

TO MAKE the junior colleges of the country known for the excellence of their instruction has been an important aim of the Committee on Teacher Preparation of the American Association of Junior Colleges. Existence of a satisfactory plan whereby a veteran teacher may receive an adequate pension after reaching retirement age is an important factor in attracting capable young people to choose junior-college teaching as their vocational objective and retaining them in the profession. At the joint request of the Committees on Administrative Problems and Teacher Preparation, the Research Office of the Association at the University of Chicago has made a study of teacher-retirement plans in junior colleges. This article presents certain general information revealed by the study. A great body of information concerning details of the plans is at hand, and consideration is being given to reporting them in subsequent articles. Complete plans in this area, as projected by the Com-

mittee on Teacher Preparation, include something in the way of appraisal of the plans in operation.

Nature of the Study

The information was gathered during the last part of the school year 1947-48. The many types of retirement plans in operation required an eight-page inquiry form. In all, thirteen types of plans were listed by the colleges responding to the questionnaire. The section of the form relating to "General Information on Retirement Plans" asked for information on (1) the status of retirement plans, (2) the type or types of retirement plans used to cover employees, (3) the classes of employees covered, (4) the basis of membership in the plan (compulsory or voluntary), (5) the year the plan was established, and (6) the number of teachers covered.

The second section was devoted to specific provisions of teacher-retirement plans. For public institutions whose teachers are covered by state-wide plans, most of the information was gathered from state sources.

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Classification of the Colleges

Classification of the colleges included in the study is shown in Table 1. Seventy-one of the junior colleges listed in the 1948 "Junior College Directory" were excluded from the study: (1) 42 of the col-

dition to the 309 respondents, it was possible to include 135 institutions for at least a part of the study because of information gathered from the following sources: (1) retirement laws of the several states; (2) *Statutory Provisions for State-*

TABLE 1.—CLASSIFICATION OF 444 JUNIOR COLLEGES INCLUDED IN STUDY OF TEACHER-RETIREMENT PLANS

| Classification | Number of Colleges Sent Inquiry | Number Responding to Inquiry | Additional Number Included | Total Included | |
|---------------------|---------------------------------|------------------------------|----------------------------|----------------|----------|
| | | | | Number | Per Cent |
| Local and district: | | | | | |
| Small | 137 | 76 | 61 | 137 | 100.0 |
| Large | 111 | 72 | 39 | 111 | 100.0 |
| All | 248 | 148 | 100 | 248 | 100.0 |
| State | 64 | 33 | 31 | 64 | 100.0 |
| Private: | | | | | |
| Small | 194 | 79 | 4 | 83 | 42.8 |
| Large | 86 | 49 | | 49 | 57.0 |
| All | 280 | 128 | 4 | 132 | 47.1 |
| Total | 592 | 309 | 135 | 444 | 75.0 |

leges under denominational control, because their circumstances obviated the need for a retirement plan; (2) all evening junior colleges, 14 in number, because their faculty members are only part-time teachers or, if full-time, are included elsewhere in this study; (3) 6 privately controlled institutions, four of which had closed and two of which had become four-year colleges; (4) 9 privately controlled colleges located outside the continental United States.

After these 62 colleges had been excluded, the forms were sent to the remaining colleges listed. In ad-

wide Retirement Systems;¹ (3) *Analysis of Local Provisions for Teacher Retirement*;² (4) Greenough's book, *College Retirement and Insurance Plans*;³ and (5) data from the Teachers Insurance and Annuity Association of America.

¹ *Statutory Provisions for State-wide Retirement Systems*. Washington: Research Division and National Council on Teacher Retirement, National Education Association, 1946.

² *Analysis of Local Provisions for Teacher Retirement*. Washington: National Council on Teacher Retirement and Research Division, National Education Association, 1947.

³ William C. Greenough, *College Retirement and Insurance Plans*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1948.

Since each of the 48 states now has some plan for retirement in the public junior colleges, it was possible to include all 248 of the junior colleges under local and district control and all 64 of those under state control—a coverage of 100 per cent for these classifications. The 132 private institutions for which information was obtained made up

tion) of the public junior colleges under local or district control have retirement plans in effect. Also with a single exception, all institutions under state control have retirement plans. Although only 36.4 per cent of the private junior colleges had plans in effect in 1947-48, the study shows, as will be seen subsequently, that plans are being developed

TABLE 2.—JUNIOR COLLEGES WITH TEACHER-RETIREMENT PLANS IN EFFECT OR CONTEMPLATED

| Classification | Colleges with Plan | | Number of Colleges with— | | |
|---------------------|--------------------|----------|--------------------------|-----------------|-------------------|
| | Number | Per Cent | Plan Ready | Plan Developing | Plan Contemplated |
| Local and district: | | | | | |
| Small | 137 | 100.0 | | | |
| Large | 110 | 99.1 | | 1 | |
| All | 247 | 99.6 | | 1 | |
| State | 63 | 98.4 | | | |
| Private: | | | | | |
| Small | 29 | 34.9 | 1 | 6 | 27 |
| Large | 19 | 38.8 | 1 | 9 | 16 |
| All | 48 | 36.4 | 2 | 15 | 43 |
| Total | 358 | 80.6 | 2 | 16 | 43 |

47.1 per cent of the private junior colleges.

In all tables presented here, institutions enrolling fewer than 300 students are designated as small colleges; those with 300 or more, as large colleges. This classification by size, based on the distribution of enrolments in the junior colleges of the country, has been followed in other investigations made by the Research Office.

Status of Retirement Plans

In Table 2 it is revealed that all but a single one (a large institu-

rapidly. According to reports made, the number will be more than doubled, raising the percentage to 81.8 when the plans now being developed or contemplated are added to those now in operation.

Types of Retirement Plans

The types of retirement plans in effect and the prevalence of each type for the various classifications of colleges are shown in Table 3. One may note that, of the 137 small junior colleges operating under local or district control and having some type of retirement plan, 21.9

TABLE 3.—TEACHER-RETIREMENT PLANS IN EFFECT IN 358 JUNIOR COLLEGES AND PER CENT OF COLLEGES USING EACH TYPE

| Type of Plan | Local and District | | | State (63) | Private | | | Total (358) |
|--|--------------------|----------------|--------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|-------------|----------------|
| | Small (137)* | Large (110) | All (247) | | Small (29) | Large (19) | All (48) | |
| State-wide, publicly administered, joint-contributory: | | | | | | | | |
| For all public employees | 21.9 | 3.6 | 13.8 | 19.0 | | | | 12.8 |
| For all public-school personnel | 23.4 | 9.1 | 17.0 | 33.3 | | | | 17.6 |
| For all public-school personnel except custodial | 16.8 | 21.8 | 19.0 | 19.0 | | | | 14.5 |
| For all public-school teachers, administrators, librarians | 35.0 | 51.8 | 42.5 | 25.4 | | | | 33.7 |
| For all public-school personnel of first-class cities | .7 | 2.7 | 1.6 | | | | | 1.1 |
| State-wide, noncontributory | 2.2 | 9.1 | 5.3 | 1.6 | | | | 3 |
| Local, joint-contributory | | | | | | | | 3.6 |
| T.I.A.A. | | | | | | | | 7.0 |
| Insurance-company contracts | | | | | | | | 2.5 |
| Denominational plan | | | | | | | | 4.8 |
| Self-funded plan | | | | | | | | 3 |
| Non-funded plan | | | | | | | | .6 |
| Federal Social Security | | | | | | | | 0.6 |

*Numbers in parentheses are the numbers of institutions in the different groups.

per cent use a state-wide plan, publicly administered, joint-contributory, for all public employees in the state; that 23.4 per cent employ a similar plan except that only the public-school personnel (state and local) in the state are included; 16.8 per cent have similar plans for schools except that custodial personnel are not included; 35.0 per cent include only public-school teachers (state and local), administrative staff, and librarians; 0.7 per cent of the colleges use joint-contributory plans for all public-school personnel of first-class cities in the state; and the remaining 2.2 per cent have a local, publicly administered, joint-contributory plan. Only those local plans of cities not covered by state plans are included.

These same six types of retirement plans exist in the large public (local and district) junior colleges. In addition, there are examples of contracts having been made with the Teachers Insurance and Annuity Association of America (hereafter referred to as the T.I.A.A.) or with other agency life-insurance companies.

For the 247 colleges under local and district control, a publicly administered, joint-contributory plan is almost universal, 99.2 per cent of these schools having such plans. The 63 state junior colleges present a similar picture, with 96.8 per cent using some type of publicly admin-

istered, joint-contributory plan; 1.6 per cent using a state-wide, publicly administered, noncontributory (pension) plan; and the remaining 1.6 per cent using a non-funded plan in which no special fund is built up, pensions being paid from current funds.

In the private schools, however, an entirely different picture is presented as publicly administered plans are not there permissible. Of the 48 private colleges, a half have contracts with the T.I.A.A.; more than a third have a denominational plan; a sixth have contracts with agency life-insurance companies other than the T.I.A.A.; and 2.1 per cent have non-funded plans providing for payment of the pensions from current funds. Two other plans are found exclusively among the private colleges: (1) a self-funded, joint-contributory plan in which the college operates its own system and (2) the plan by which the teachers are placed under Federal Social Security. The self-funded plan appears only in the larger schools. The colleges using Federal Social Security are proprietary and are usually incorporated as profit-making institutions.

Percentages for the private junior colleges total more than 100 in each column, since one small and four large colleges have two distinct plans for teachers and both types were included in this report. A fact

not disclosed by the table is that a few junior colleges in large cities use a local city district plan in addition to the state-wide plan.

A glance at Table 3 shows that the most prevalent type of retirement plan in public junior colleges is the plan covering all teachers, administrators, and librarians, but not covering other employees. This table also shows that more private institutions are using T.I.A.A. contracts than any other plan.

Teachers Covered

In Table 4 an attempt is made to show the number of teachers covered by the various types of plans. Since the responses did not indicate clearly the exact number of teachers actually participating in a given plan, a teacher is deemed to be covered by a retirement plan if he has the opportunity to become a member in one. That this procedure gives an approximately accurate picture, at least in the case of public colleges, is evidenced by the information listed in Table 5 that membership in a retirement plan is compulsory for newcomers to the college instructional and administrative staffs in all 247 junior colleges under local or district control and in all 63 under state control. The figures for private institutions account for less than half of the teachers in the private junior colleges that were included in the

study; the others were in colleges for which no form was returned.

Table 4 indicates that 13,248 (84.4 per cent) of the 15,694 teachers included in the study are in junior colleges with retirement plans in effect. With the exception of the state junior colleges, the percentage of teachers covered is higher, at times only slightly, than the percentage of schools shown in Table 2 to have plans in effect. Thus 94.0 per cent of the teachers in state junior colleges are covered, while 98.4 per cent of the schools have plans; and 42.3 per cent of the teachers in private junior colleges are covered, while 36.4 per cent of the schools have plans. When all classifications are considered, it is seen that 84.4 per cent of the teachers are covered, and that 80.6 per cent of the colleges have plans.

When the number of teachers covered by each plan is tabulated, the evidence shows considerable similarity to the data based on the tabulation by institutions. The 9,243 teachers covered by some type of publicly administered, joint-contributory plan constitute 98.6 per cent of the 9,371 public junior-college teachers (in colleges under local and district control) who are covered by some plan. This is close to the 99.2 already cited as the percentage of these schools using this plan. Furthermore, the largest single group of teachers, 5,677, is

TABLE 4.—NUMBER OF TEACHERS COVERED BY CERTAIN TYPES OF PLANS IN JUNIOR COLLEGES WITH RETIREMENT PLANS IN EFFECT

| Type of Plan | Local and District | | | Private | | | Total (15,694) |
|--|--------------------|------------------|----------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|-------------------|
| | Small (2,531)* | Large (6,876) | All (9,407) | State (2,350) | Small (1,473) | Large (2,404) | |
| State-wide, publicly administered, joint-contributory: | | | | | | | |
| For all public employees | 412 | 218 | 630 | 393 | ... | ... | 1,023 |
| For all public-school personnel | 501 | 412 | 913 | 684 | ... | ... | 1,597 |
| For all public-school personnel except custodial | 482 | 1,364 | 1,846 | 498 | ... | ... | 2,344 |
| For all public-school teachers, administrators, librarians | 1,060 | 4,025 | 5,085 | 592 | ... | ... | 5,677 |
| For all public-school personnel of first-class cities | 23 | 77 | 100 | ... | ... | ... | 100 |
| State-wide, noncontributory | | | | | | | |
| Local, joint-contributory | 53 | 616 | 669 | 27 | ... | ... | 27 |
| T.I.A.A. | 53 | 53 | 53 | 336 | 432 | 768 | 669 |
| Insurance-company contracts | 75 | 75 | 75 | 32 | 424 | 456 | 821 |
| Denominational plan | ... | ... | ... | 137 | 208 | 345 | 531 |
| Self-funded plan | ... | ... | ... | 16 | 35 | 35 | 345 |
| Non-funded plan | ... | ... | ... | ... | 1 | 1 | 35 |
| Federal Social Security | ... | ... | ... | 27 | 35 | 62 | 62 |
| Total: | | | | | | | |
| Number | 2,531 | 6,840 | 9,371 | 2,210 | 532 | 1,135 | 1,667 |
| Per cent | 100.0 | 99.5 | 99.6 | 94.0 | 36.1 | 46.1 | 42.3 |
| | | | | | | | 13,248 |
| | | | | | | | 84.4 |

*Numbers in parentheses are the total numbers of teachers comprising the different groups.

made up of those belonging to plans covering all public-school teachers, administrators, and librarians but not covering other employees. A comparison of Tables 3 and 4, however, will reveal several differences in the relative importance of certain types of plans when considered from the standpoint of institutions or teachers. Among institutions the second most frequent plan is the state-wide plan covering all public-school personnel, but Table 4 shows that the number of teachers working under a plan excluding custodial employees far exceeds the number under the plan including them. Among private junior colleges the T.I.A.A. contracts are most popular whether considered by institutions or by teachers; but denominational plans, easily second when number of institutions is considered, drop to third in the number of teachers covered.

Year of Establishment of Plans

The responses did not always give the earliest date for the establishment of some type of retirement system in a school, since extensive revisions have been made in some plans. In this report the year of establishment has been taken to be that year in which the major portion of the present plan went into effect. From responses to the inquiry or from other sources listed above, it was possible to obtain information from all small local

and district colleges and from almost all other public colleges. Information is not available for 0.8 per cent of the public (local and district) junior colleges and for 1.6 per cent of the state colleges. There was no other source of information concerning the private colleges that did not respond to the inquiry. Information is not available for 29.2 per cent of the private colleges with plans—34.4 per cent of the small colleges and 21.0 per cent of the large colleges.

The median year for the establishment of the plans in the 358 schools where they are now in effect is 1937. For the local and district public colleges the median is 1938; for the state colleges, 1937; and for the private colleges, 1938. The replies indicate that, in general, the public junior colleges adopted retirement plans for teachers earlier than did the private institutions but that the private junior colleges have been very active in establishing plans during the past few years. In the local and district colleges, 26.3 per cent of the plans now in effect were established before 1931; in the colleges under state control, 27.0 per cent; and in private colleges, only 8.3 per cent. During the five depression years, 1931-35, few plans were established (4.5 per cent in the local and district schools, 6.3 per cent in the state schools, and 2.1 per cent in the private schools). The next five years,

1936-40, saw rapid progress, with the local and district colleges initiating 26.7 per cent of their plans; the state colleges, 23.8 per cent; and the private colleges, 14.6 per cent. The war years, 1941-45, resulted in still greater activity for all three classifications: local and dis-

lished during this period, it is evident that the adoption of retirement plans for their teachers is one of the significant developments now taking place in private junior colleges. It should be recalled, however, that only 48 of the 132 private colleges for which infor-

TABLE 5.—PERCENTAGES OF JUNIOR COLLEGES WITH TEACHER-RETIREMENT PLANS INDICATING COMPULSORY MEMBERSHIP IN THE PLAN FOR CERTAIN CLASSES OF PERSONNEL

| <i>Classification</i> | <i>Instructional Staff</i> | <i>Administrative Officers</i> | <i>Librarians</i> | <i>Health Officers</i> | <i>Clerical Employees</i> | <i>Custodial Employees</i> | <i>No Answer</i> |
|-----------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------------|-------------------|------------------------|---------------------------|----------------------------|------------------|
| Local and district: | | | | | | | |
| Small (137)* | 100.0 | 100.0 | 99.3 | 85.4 | 43.1 | 47.4 | ... |
| Large (110) | 100.0 | 100.0 | 98.2 | 70.9 | 32.7 | 21.8 | ... |
| All (247) | 100.0 | 100.0 | 98.8 | 78.9 | 38.5 | 36.0 | ... |
| State (63) | 100.0 | 100.0 | 96.8 | 71.4 | 76.2 | 58.7 | ... |
| Private | | | | | | | |
| Small (29) | 37.9 | 37.9 | 37.9 | 13.8 | 6.9 | 6.9 | 24.2 |
| Large (19) | 73.7 | 63.2 | 52.6 | 15.8 | 15.8 | 15.8 | ... |
| All (48) | 52.1 | 47.9 | 43.7 | 14.6 | 10.4 | 10.4 | ... |
| Total (358) | 93.6 | 93.0 | 91.1 | 69.0 | 41.3 | 36.6 | 2.0 |

* Numbers in parentheses are the numbers of institutions in the different groups.

trict, 29.1 per cent; state, 41.3 per cent; and private, 18.7 per cent. In the two and one-half year period beginning January, 1946, the organization of plans dropped to 12.6 per cent for local and district colleges, bringing these to approximately 100 per cent. No plan was established in state junior colleges, since the total had approached 100 per cent in the preceding periods. As 27.1 per cent of all plans in private junior colleges were estab-

mation was received indicated that retirement plans are now in effect and that information was not received concerning 148 colleges of this type.

Compulsory or Voluntary Membership

Information concerning classes of employees covered is presented in Table 5. For this tabulation membership was considered compulsory if newcomers to the college or

school system were required to participate. In nearly all the plans, membership was voluntary for personnel employed at the time the retirement plan was put into effect. It is still voluntary for all classes of personnel in some of the private colleges, but only in rare instances in the public colleges.

According to the table, 93.6 per cent of the 358 colleges with retirement plans require membership of newcomers to the instructional staff, and almost as many require membership of administrative officers and librarians. There is compulsory membership, however, for only 69.0 per cent of the health officers, 41.3 per cent of the clerical employees, and 36.6 per cent of the custodial employees. The percentage of private colleges with plans requiring membership is consistently less than the percentage for the same class of personnel in the public colleges.

Conclusions

The information presented in this study indicates (1) that all teachers and administrative officers in public junior colleges can now look forward to the security provided by a teacher-retirement plan;

(2) that many teachers in private junior colleges are covered by some plan; (3) that retirement systems are being extended rapidly to include additional teachers in private schools; (4) that most junior-college teachers are working under a joint-contributory plan which includes at least the instructional staff, the administrative officers, and the librarians; and (5) that health officers, clerical, and custodial employees are frequently included in the plan. No significant or consistent differences are noted between small and large schools.

This article undertakes no appraisal of the teacher-retirement plans in operation, as appraisal is a later step in plans of the Association's Committee on Teacher Preparation. Nevertheless, whatever the appraisal may disclose as to the actual and comparative worth of the different plans in use, the information here reported concerning present status should serve, to a considerable degree, to encourage capable persons to prepare for junior-college teaching and to lead members of present staffs in junior colleges—it is to be hoped the better ones—to remain in the profession.

Community-College Education for Women

CATHERINE J. ROBBINS

IN THESE enlightened days of free public education, enriched programs of study, and coeducational extra-curriculum activities, it is difficult for us to recall that modern education for girls and women had a struggle to gain any kind of foothold in America. Today the education of women is taken largely for granted, and our concern now is the extent to which the educational program meets the individual and social needs and interests of women.

From a *g e - l o n g* subjugation, women have moved into a position of approximate educational equality with men. Although private schools for girls at the secondary-education level developed in the eighteenth century, it was not until 1820 that the high schools of this country began to offer young women opportunities equivalent to those offered boys. At the same time, normal schools admitted a few prospective teachers, but it was a long hard fight to secure vocational training for women and their

admission to professional study in colleges and universities.

The history of women's education in America and other countries has shown us that we do not need to worry about differences between men and women in mental ability or academic achievement. Nor need we concern ourselves with the effect of education upon the health of girls and women. Advanced study will not even hinder their social adjustment or void their chances of marriage!

Learning to live intelligently and graciously is a difficult job, one which is far more complicated than learning shorthand, geometry, or a new language. To help the modern American woman learn to live, today's educational institution is moving from a rigid, simple program of studies to one planned to give training for mature living, along with a cultural background of languages, science, mathematics, general literature, and social studies. The community college, as an institution designed to serve local community needs, has a special responsibility for the preparation of women for family and community life.

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The close relation between the community college and the region it serves makes possible special emphasis on education for social, civic, and family life. The college's terminal curriculums serve the needs of students who wish to complete their schooling by the end of Grade XIV. Many women are included in this category, and they ought to have the advantages of today's opportunities for a rich and functional program of education. The modern woman's effectiveness in dealing with home and community problems demands learning in three specific phases of living: preparation for earning a living, training for intelligent homemaking and gracious family life, and development for social competence and community service. The need for these phases of growth is equally great among women who participate in a terminal course and those who are taking pre-professional training; all three should be merged into a well-integrated program of education.

Earning a living is a major factor in a rich and satisfying life. As a woman prepares herself for efficient functioning in a vocation, she needs to develop good vocational attitudes and habits. Pride in socially useful work, whether it be in medicine, cosmetology, teaching, or any other occupation, is essential for satisfaction in one's vocation. For vocational success the mastery of

the fundamentals and competence in the techniques of a vocation are primary factors. To sound scholarship, however, must be added the ability to get along with people. Student extra-curriculum activities provide experience in the social relationships so necessary for vocational success and social competence.

Preparation for marriage and home life today includes courses not only in the specific homemaking areas, such as foods, diet, nutrition, sewing, interior decoration, and child care and development, but also in the fields of economics (especially consumer education), sociology of the family, and general psychology. Classes in marriage and the family make a major contribution to the promotion of healthy personal and social relationships. For effective civic participation, women must have training in government, international relations, and general social problems. Philosophy, history, literature, and the arts provide a basis for a rich cultural life for the individual woman and her family.

The modern wife and mother devotes time to community service and social responsibility. Women are particularly gifted in the relieving of human suffering, in activity for civic betterment, and in the development and the directing of leisure-time activities in the fields of art, literature, music, and club

activities. The women's clubs of the nation are a major factor in the adult education of women and in guiding intelligent participation in democracy. The classroom work and the extra-curriculum activities of the community college contribute to the social and intellectual development of the modern woman for her responsibilities at home, in the community, and the world.

Student activities of the types which stress community service and human betterment, such as the Red Cross College Unit program, the World Student Service Fund promotion, and local, national, and international projects for community welfare, lend themselves to the integration of student life with courses

of study, and they provide experience in the practice of those human relationships so important to woman's place in modern democratic society. Campus life and the curriculum together must provide the guidance that women need in meeting today's changing cultural, economic, and social patterns.

The large group of young women who intend to complete their formal education at the end of Grade XIV ought to find in the community college the courses of study, the democratic experience, and the educational philosophy necessary for a well-integrated home and community life of culture, vocational competence, and social-civic responsibility.

Programs of Junior-College Teacher Preparation

LEONARD V. KOOS

THIS article is in the nature of the report of an investigation of programs of preparation for junior-college teachers in the higher institutions of the country, an investigation made on behalf of the Committee on Teacher Preparation of the American Association of Junior Colleges. This committee, one of the Association's five Committees on Research and Service, has been constructively interested in the qualifications, preparation, security, and welfare of teachers in junior colleges and, in 1947, with the approval of the officers of the Association, requested the Research Office of the Association at the University of Chicago to ascertain the status of the programs.

Procedures and Scope of Inquiry

A three-step procedure was followed in gathering the information for the investigation. The prelimi-

nary first step was a letter sent in early December, 1947, to the deans of colleges or schools of education (or heads of departments in institutions where the work in education is not organized as a college or school) asking for (1) an indication of whether or not a program of preparation of junior-college teachers is in operation, (2) the name of the unit in the institution in which the program is offered, (3) the name and title of the person responsible for administering the program, and (4) a marked copy of the catalogue and/or other publication describing it. The letter went to sixty-two universities and state colleges, the aim being to reach all institutions of the university type in the country. Answers to the letter were received from practically all institutions approached. Many were very brief and to the effect that no such program is in operation.

Next, the answers, including catalogues and other materials submitted, were analyzed. On the basis of the outcomes of this analysis, a four-page schedule was prepared,

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asking for details of information concerning the programs. This schedule was distributed to the thirty-two institutions whose answers indicated that something in the way of a program, even if only a beginning, was under way. It was directed to the person named as responsible for administering the program. Copies of the schedule were sent also to a few state teachers' colleges known to have set up programs for the preparation of teachers at the junior-college level. All but a small number of the schedules distributed were filled out and returned. Simple tabular analysis was made of the information supplied. Presentation of results of this analysis is the main purpose of this article.

Because the Committee on Teacher Preparation is concerned not only with the status of the programs but also with the rate at which they may be developing, the third step in the investigation was a follow-up letter sent out in October, 1948, to all institutions approached in the original list and to an additional state teachers' college found in the interim to have instituted a program, to ask what changes had taken place during the year in provisions for junior-college teacher preparation. Brief reference will be made, near the end of this report, to the returns from this follow-up inquiry.

Distribution of Programs by States

The information mainly relied on for this article was turned in on schedules by twenty-seven institutions, twenty-five of which are universities and state colleges of university type and two are teachers' colleges (one state and one private). The twenty-seven institutions are in eighteen states, the distribution by regions being as shown in Table 1. The institutions

TABLE 1.—DISTRIBUTION BY STATES OF 27 INSTITUTIONS FROM WHICH SCHEDULES CONCERNING THEIR JUNIOR-COLLEGE TEACHER-EDUCATION PROGRAMS WERE RECEIVED

| Region | Number of States | Number of Institutions |
|------------------|------------------|------------------------|
| New England ... | 1 | 1 |
| Middle Atlantic | 2 | 3 |
| North Central .. | 7 | 11 |
| South | 4 | 6 |
| West | 4 | 6 |
| Total | 18 | 27 |

appear to be rather widely distributed, but the evidence suggests a numerically greater development of programs in the North Central, the South, and the West regions than in New England and the Middle States. This is in accord, roughly, with the relative status of the junior college in these regions.

In addition, rather long letters descriptive of the situations in five other universities were received, although the schedules were not returned. Inclusion of these in the

table would not modify the geographic distribution in any important way, although the information supplied in the letters helps to an understanding of the status of junior-college teacher preparation. Because the answers in these five letters underline, in the main, the picture of status supplied by the analysis of schedules, no further reference will be made to them.

Administration of the Programs

Two lines of inquiry in the schedule were concerned with the responsibility for organizing and administering junior-college teacher-preparation programs. One asked the respondent to indicate the school, college, or other agency responsible for organizing it. The answers for recurring units are to be found in Table 2, which shows that the school or college of education is the unit most often having the responsibility alone, the graduate school much less often alone, and the graduate school and the school or college of education with joint responsibility almost as often as the school or college of education alone. Departments of education in two institutions having no school or college of education have this responsibility, thus increasing the number and proportion of institutions in which the education unit is reported to have sole responsibility. Joint responsibility of three units is

reported for three institutions, and in two of these the arts college is reported as sharing the responsibility. Remaining agencies reported once only are an all-university committee on teacher preparation, a committee on accrediting schools and colleges, and the chair of junior-college education.

The other line of inquiry concerned the title of the person administering the program and, as

TABLE 2.—UNIT IN 27 INSTITUTIONS RESPONSIBLE FOR ORGANIZING THE PROGRAM OF JUNIOR-COLLEGE TEACHER PREPARATION

| <i>Unit</i> | <i>Frequency of Mention</i> |
|--|-----------------------------|
| School or college of education | 9 |
| Graduate school | 2 |
| Graduate school and school or college of education | 8 |
| Other | 8 |
| Total | 27 |

may be expected from what has just been reported, the compilation shown in Table 3 finds the dean of the school or college of education (or the head of the department of education in institutions not having a school or college of education) most often charged with this responsibility. In three institutions, joint responsibility is carried by the deans of the graduate school and of the school or college of education, and in still another institution (without a school or college of education) by the dean of the grad-

uate school and the head of the department of education. Heads of departments of higher education

TABLE 3.—OFFICIALS ADMINISTERING PROGRAM OF JUNIOR-COLLEGE TEACHER PREPARATION IN 27 INSTITUTIONS

| Official | Frequency of Mention |
|---|----------------------|
| Dean of school or college of education | 9 |
| Head of department of education | 3 |
| Deans of graduate school and of college of education | 3 |
| Dean of graduate school and head of department of education | 1 |
| Head of department of higher education | 2 |
| Junior-college specialist | 2 |
| Others | 7 |
| Total | 27 |

and junior-college specialists carry the responsibilities in two instances each. Most of the "other" officials represent joint responsibility, although two are the chairman and the executive secretary of committees named in interpreting Table 2.

Requirements for Admission to Programs

Respondents were asked to indicate by check mark, in a list provided in the schedule, the requirements for admission to the programs of junior-college teacher preparation or to write in others not included in the list. The requirements reported for the twenty institutions represented in the answers are shown in Table 4. The

Bachelor's degree is seen to be all but a universal requirement in the institutions for which answers are at hand—a fact which places the program definitely at the graduate level. About half the respondents indicate the requirement of completion of an undergraduate major or minor or both majors and minors in subject matter. Apparently, only a minority specify a requirement in the field of education. Most of those requiring courses in education not making up a major or minor specify the courses meeting requirements for teaching certificates. Other requirements reported are not many and include in three instances selective requirements, namely, "upper

TABLE 4.—REQUIREMENTS FOR ADMISSION TO PROGRAM OF JUNIOR-COLLEGE TEACHER PREPARATION IN 20 INSTITUTIONS

| Requirement | Frequency of Mention |
|---|----------------------|
| Bachelor's degree | 19 |
| Undergraduate major in subject matter | 9 |
| Undergraduate minor in subject matter | 8 |
| Undergraduate major in education | 2 |
| Undergraduate minor in education | 2 |
| Undergraduate courses in education (not a major or minor) | 4 |
| Teaching experience | 1 |
| Other | 5 |
| No answer | 7 |

half of class," "grade-point average," and "qualification for graduate study," while a fourth requires the taking of an analogies test. The re-

maining single additional requirement reported is completion of general education as defined by the undergraduate college. The rather large proportion of institutions from which no answer was received on this point of requirements for admission may be accepted as evidence of the relatively undeveloped state of the programs.

Student Registration in the Programs

IDENTIFICATION OF STUDENTS.—One question in the schedule asked whether or not students preparing for junior-college teaching are readily identifiable by their registration. Definitive answers were made for twenty-five of the twenty-seven institutions. Of these, six were "Yes" and nineteen, "No." The proportion in the negative is very large and, doubtless, much larger than it would have been if the inquiry had concerned teacher-preparation programs for some lower level, like the high school. The large proportion is further evidence of the relatively undeveloped state of the junior-college teacher-preparation programs.

COUNTS OR ESTIMATES OF ENROLLMENTS.—Respondents were also requested to supply counts or estimates of numbers of regular students enrolled at Bachelor's, Master's, and Doctor's levels, and enrolled without reference to degrees. Before report is made on the out-

comes of a count of the numbers of students set down by respondents, it is of some importance to note the relative proportions of the entries that were counts and estimates and of failures to make either kind of entry. The schedules from five institutions reported counts; those from eleven reported estimates only; those from three reported counts for some entries and estimates for others; and eight failed to make any type of entry. The facts that so many entries are merely estimates and that so many respondents made no entries suggests once more the undeveloped state of the programs.

NUMBERS OF STUDENTS AT DIFFERENT LEVELS.—The total number of regular students reported, by count and estimate, to be taking junior-college teacher-preparation programs in the 19 institutions making definitive entries is 414. Of these, only 14 were reported as being at the Bachelor's level; 254 were at the Master's level; 99 at the Doctor's level; and 47, as the schedule put it, "without reference to a degree." Thus, well over three-fifths were at the Master's level and almost a fourth at the Doctor's level. Although students at the Master's level far outnumber those at other levels, those at the Doctor's level make up a substantial minority of the entire group.

The total number reported is far

from reassuring when compared with the total number of junior-college teachers in service and the prospective demand for new teachers to keep up with the turnover in present positions. It appears even more inadequate in the face of the impending further rapid growth of the junior college.

STUDENTS PER INSTITUTION.—The distribution of total enrolments in the programs as found in the schedules from the 19 institutions making usable entries is as shown in Table 5. Most of them are seen to be clustered in the two intervals of fewer than 10 and 10-19 students. The median number in the original distribution (not computed from this table) is 12 students, a number far too small, when account is taken of the small number of institutions with programs, to assure an adequate supply.

Recognition for Completing Program

Responses to the request to indicate the recognition given for completion of the junior-college teacher-preparation programs are displayed in Table 6. A diversity of practice is seen. More institutions grant either the Master's or Doctor's degree than follow any other practice, although the granting of the Master's degree alone is not far behind in frequency. Other kinds of recognition, either alone or in

combination, are given in one or two institutions only. Respondents for two institutions reported "no special recognition," and it is probable that the four making no answer had not yet come to a decision on recognition. The total numbers of institutions giving recognition by Master's degree, Doctor's degree, and certificate, either alone or in combination, are, respectively, 18, 11, and 6.

The specific degrees conferred, by numbers of institutions among the nineteen reporting on the ques-

TABLE 5.—DISTRIBUTION OF 27 INSTITUTIONS ACCORDING TO NUMBER OF REGULAR STUDENTS ENROLLED IN PROGRAM OF JUNIOR-COLLEGE TEACHER PREPARATION

| <i>Number of Students</i> | <i>Number of Institutions</i> |
|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| Fewer than 10 | 5 |
| 10-19 | 7 |
| 20-29 | 2 |
| 30-39 | 1 |
| 40-49 | 1 |
| 50-59 | 1 |
| 60-69 | |
| 70-79 | 2 |
| No or indefinite answer | 8 |
| Total | 27 |

tion, are as shown in Table 7. The most recurrent degrees are seen to be the M.A., M.S., Ph.D., and Ed.D. In five instances the M.S. is made specific as to major subject: in education (three times), in agriculture (once), and in business (once).

The information concerning recognition by special certification for

junior-college teaching is so scattered as to hinder reliable generalization. However, for five institutions in three states this recognition appears to have the form of state certification, and for one institution it is not the equivalent of state certification but is, instead, the institution's official approval of the recipient for junior-college teaching.

*Curriculum Requirements
and Offering*

REQUIREMENTS.—Inquiry into the make-up of the program sought

TABLE 6.—RECOGNITION GIVEN BY 27 INSTITUTIONS FOR COMPLETION OF PROGRAM OF JUNIOR-COLLEGE TEACHER PREPARATION

| Recognition | Frequency of Mention |
|---|----------------------|
| Master's degree alone | 6 |
| Doctor's degree alone | 1 |
| Certificate alone | 2 |
| Master's degree and certificate | 2 |
| Master's or Doctor's degree .. | 8 |
| Master's or Doctor's degree and certificate | 2 |
| No special recognition | 2 |
| No answer | 4 |
| Total | 27 |

information on the general picture of requirements in them; the courses in the field of education prescribed, including apprentice teaching; the "elements" concerned with the junior college; and the plans of subject-matter preparation in operation.

The frequencies of indication by respondents of certain curriculum

requirements are reported in Table 8. These are seen to be mainly grouped under two headings: in subject matter and in the field of

TABLE 7.—SPECIFIC DEGREES GRANTED BY 19 INSTITUTIONS AS RECOGNITION FOR COMPLETION OF PROGRAMS OF JUNIOR-COLLEGE TEACHER PREPARATION

| Degree | Frequency of Mention |
|-------------|----------------------|
| M.A. | 12 |
| M.S. | 10 |
| M.B.A. | 1 |
| M.Ed. | 2 |
| Ph.D. | 9 |
| Ed.D. | 8 |

education. For subject-matter preparation, most of the institutions are found to be requiring completion of a major, about a third prescribe a minor, and about a fourth

TABLE 8.—CURRICULUM REQUIREMENTS IN 23 JUNIOR-COLLEGE TEACHER-PREPARED PROGRAMS

| Requirement | Frequency of Mention |
|---|----------------------|
| In subject matter: | |
| Major | 17 |
| Minor | 8 |
| Major and minor | 6 |
| In education: | |
| Minor | 10 |
| Major | 4 |
| Group of set courses | 6 |
| Definite number of semester hours | 1 |
| Composite major | 2 |
| Other | 1 |

both a major and a minor. Because the numbers in this section of the table add up to 31 instead of 23, it

may be inferred that the programs in some institutions permit either a major or a minor for meeting the requirement in subject matter. Inquiry was made concerning the semester hours in these requirements, but the answers were indicative of such diversity and flexibility as to preclude reporting them in brief space.

Special attention should be directed to the number of programs (6) requiring subject-matter preparation in both a major and a minor. This practice is, in some degree, in harmony with the demonstrated need in the situation. Evidence is at hand to show that most junior-college teachers must and do give instruction in two or more subjects.¹ It is significant that a minority of these programs already recognize the need but unfortunate that all programs are not doing so.

The more common requirements in the field of education are either a minor or a group of set courses. Only four institutions prescribe as much as a major in this field. In two institutions the requirements are set up in a major which is a composite of subject matter and work in the field of education. The only other requirement, made in a single institution, is in American history and government.

The schedule at three points in

¹ *Junior College Journal*, XVIII (December, 1947), 197-98.

this section inquiring into requirements in the programs asked for prescriptions of specific courses in education. These points were where the respondent was asked to check whether a minor, a major, or a group of set courses was required. From the responses at these points, a frequency list of prescribed courses in education was compiled. The courses and their frequencies, from the greatest frequency downward to those listed only twice, are as follows: Educational Psychology, 10; Junior College ("Extended Secondary School" in one instance), 8; Apprentice (or "Practice," "Cadet," "Supervised," or "Student") Teaching, 7; Methods (or General Methods), 5; History and/or Philosophy of Education, 5; Principles of Secondary Education (or "Secondary Education"), 4; Introduction to Education, 4; Special Methods, 3; College Education, 2; Principles of Teaching, 2; Research, 2.

The chief observation prompted by contemplation of this list is that, except for the courses called "Junior College" and "College Education," this list consists of the usual requirements in programs of teacher preparation for the high-school level. A few other courses, among those listed once only, for example, Problems of Junior-College Administration and Problems of College Teaching, are exceptions to this ob-

servation. In one portion of the evidence presented in the section next following, one may arrive at partial judgment concerning the extent to which the junior college is given special attention in the courses customarily required for teacher preparation at the high-school level.

ELEMENTS OF THE PROGRAM.—The investigation, by further questions on the schedule, sought to obtain a more detailed picture of the programs. These questions concerned the work both in education and in subject matter. The details in the field of education were obtained by submitting a list of elements and asking respondents to check those being offered *specifically within the area of the junior college* and those *carried on in conjunction with preparation of teachers for secondary school or for higher institutions*. Both the list of elements and the frequencies of checking are given in Table 9. In interpreting the table, it is well to bear in mind that all twenty-seven respondents checked at least one element somewhere on the schedule and that most of them checked more. Further, the institutions represented in the last right-hand column are also included in the other two columns tallied under "In Conjunction"; that is, these institutions may be understood to recognize these elements in the programs both for teachers in sec-

ondary schools and in higher institutions. Some of them even were reported to be offering a given element specifically within the area of the junior college *and* in conjunc-

TABLE 9.—ELEMENTS OF JUNIOR-COLLEGE TEACHER PREPARATION OFFERED AND NUMBER OF INSTITUTIONS OFFERING THESE ELEMENTS SPECIFICALLY IN THE FIELD OF THE JUNIOR COLLEGE AND IN CONJUNCTION WITH SECONDARY AND HIGHER EDUCATION

| Element | Specifically in Junior- College Area | In Conjunction | | |
|--|--|-----------------------------|--------------------------|-----------|
| | | With Secondary Education | With Higher Education | With Both |
| Philosophy and place of the junior college | 13 | 12 | 7 | 3 |
| Organizing and administering junior colleges | 15 | 7 | 8 | 3 |
| Junior-college curriculum ... | 13 | 8 | 6 | 3 |
| Psychology of post-adolescence or late adolescence | 7 | 9 | 4 | 2 |
| Student personnel problems in junior colleges .. | 9 | 9 | 5 | 2 |
| Methods of teaching in junior colleges | 8 | 5 | 7 | 2 |
| Apprentice or practice teaching | 4 | 4 | 4 | .. |
| Workshop in the junior college | 6 | 1 | 1 | .. |
| Others | 2 | | 1 | .. |

tion with secondary education or with higher education, or with both.

The frequencies reported, while not high, suggest some awareness of the need for these elements in junior-college teacher-preparation programs. At the same time, if it is

assumed that offering the elements specifically in the junior-college area is more likely to recognize the need than is offering them in conjunction with some other level, the frequencies are not reassuring. This inference is supported by the distribution of institutions according to the number of elements recognized, which is not reported here. The mean and the median of elements recognized are only about 3.

The respondents who checked elements of the program as being offered specifically in the junior-college area were asked to indicate which of the elements checked were being administered as distinct courses. These indications were not numerous, summing up to only 23. This does not mean that an equal number of distinct courses pertaining specifically to the junior college were being offered, as some of the respondents reported that two or three elements, for example, "Philosophy and place of the junior college," "Organizing and administering junior colleges," or these two elements and "Junior-college curriculum," were being combined in single courses. So far as can be ascertained from the schedules, the most frequent number of distinct courses is a single one, the course on "The Junior College." A few institutions offer two courses and an occasional institution, more.

The checking of the elements as being offered in conjunction with

programs in the preparation of teachers for secondary schools or for higher institutions, as reported in the frequencies in the second and the third columns of Table 9, harbors an issue which was so recognized in the answers of a few respondents. Since space permits hardly more than admission of the issue here, extended consideration must be postponed. Adding the frequencies in the two columns in Table 9 headed "With Secondary Education" and "With Higher Education" yields respective totals of 55 and 43, with the larger total for recognition of the junior college in programs for secondary-school teachers. This may be partly explained by the larger number of institutions offering programs in secondary education than in higher education and partly by a rather prevalent conviction that the junior college is, in the main, an upward extension of the secondary school. Without presuming to settle the question, the writer ventures the opinion that, while the impending universalization of opportunities at the junior-college level will ally the work primarily with the secondary school, the preparation of teachers for the junior college will benefit from a discerning composite, or fusion, of the best understandings derivable from both levels.

APPRENTICE TEACHING.—Earlier in this section, in listing the courses in education required, it was re-

ported that apprentice teaching was prescribed in seven programs. Further inquiry concerning this element asked where the teaching is done and the number of semester hours required. One respondent answered that it is done in personnel courses; two, that it is done in junior colleges; one, that it is done "in high school, junior college, or Lower Division on the campus"; and two, that it is done in senior high school. One answer was not definitive. The proportion requiring this important element in a teacher-training program is discouragingly small, and the proportion providing it in junior colleges is even smaller. The semester hours of credit represented by the apprentice teaching range from one to five, with two each of the institutions reporting three and four semesters hours.

Plans of Subject-Matter Preparation

The closer look at subject-matter preparation made possible by the schedule involved the respondents' indicating to what extent preparation in broad fields is being required or permitted and to what extent preparation in the customary departmental subjects persists. The first request under this heading asked that the respondent indicate by check mark whether the subject-matter phase requires or permits preparation "by broad fields, e.g., social science, humanities, etc.,"

"by the customary departments, e.g., chemistry, political science, etc.," or by "both broad fields and departments." The frequencies of checking are given in Table 10.

The fact that the largest frequency in the "requiring" column is for customary departments suggests that the plans of subject-matter are still mainly traditional.

TABLE 10.—NUMBER OF INSTITUTIONS REQUIRING OR PERMITTING PREPARATION IN BROAD FIELDS AND CUSTOMARY DEPARTMENTS IN THEIR PROGRAMS OF JUNIOR-COLLEGE TEACHER PREPARATION

| Plan | Requiring | Permitting |
|-----------------------|-----------|------------|
| Broad fields | 4 | 7 |
| Customary departments | 9 | 4 |
| Both | 3 | 11 |

At the same time, the proportions of programs that require or permit preparation by broad fields or both by broad fields and customary departments suggests a considerable shift away from the traditional departmental point of view. Without doubt, this shift reflects the influence of the developing programs of general education at the lower collegiate level, as several of the institutions represented have been vigorously at work on such programs, and several of the respondents made mention of the significance of the general-education movement for the junior college and for junior-college teacher preparation. In at least two instances, the setup was labeled as prepara-

tion for teaching in general education with the assumption that this is preparation for junior-college teaching.

The frequency of indication of broad fields in which programs of preparation have been set up is as follows: humanities, 8 institutions; social science, 15; biological science, 14; physical science, 12; natural science, 4. Responses to the request to

A final request to respondents concerning plans of subject-matter preparation was for them to indicate, by checking on a long list of customary departments, those for which programs of junior-college teacher preparation had been set up or to write in other subjects or departments not in the list. Results of the checking, reported in Table 11, disclose a generous representa-

TABLE 11.—NUMBER OF INSTITUTIONS REPORTING THAT PROGRAMS OF JUNIOR-COLLEGE TEACHER PREPARATION HAVE BEEN SET UP IN CERTAIN SUBJECTS

| Subject | Number of Institutions | Subject | Number of Institutions |
|---|------------------------|----------------------------------|------------------------|
| English | 14 | Zoölogy | 11 |
| French | 13 | Chemistry | 14 |
| Spanish | 13 | Physics | 15 |
| German | 13 | Astronomy | 5 |
| Latin | 11 | Mathematics | 15 |
| Philosophy | 5 | Geography | 12 |
| History | 14 | Geology | 10 |
| Political science (or government) | 14 | Agriculture | 5 |
| Economics | 15 | Commerce (or business) | 13 |
| Sociology | 16 | Secretarial | 8 |
| Psychology | 15 | Home economics | 12 |
| Biology | 13 | Engineering and industrial | 5 |
| Botany | 13 | Art | 12 |
| Bacteriology | 8 | Music | 13 |
| Physiology | 8 | Physical education | 14 |

name other broad fields were few and included only the customary departments in higher institutions. In view of the evidence in Table 10, the frequencies seem rather large. The advocates of broad-fields preparation will be encouraged by the fact that some of these frequencies exceed half the number of institutions represented, even if a few of the responses indicate only partial steps or plans to set up programs on this basis.

tion of most of the usual departments in liberal arts colleges. Certain academic departments, such as philosophy, bacteriology, physiology, and astronomy, are less often represented than others, and this is owing to the smaller representation, actual or assumed, of these subjects than of the others in junior-college offerings. Whether or not they should have greater recognition in these offerings would make a good topic for discussion. Other

subjects notably less often set up in the programs of teacher preparation are agriculture, secretarial, and engineering and industrial. These lower frequencies are indicative of a serious lag of programs behind the need for well-prepared teachers of terminal courses in these fields and the need for expansion of these offerings in the junior colleges. Among the small number of other subjects added to the list once or twice each by respondents are drama, speech, journalism, health education, and librarianship.

Before leaving consideration of the plans of subject-matter preparation, the writer directs attention once more to the report of his study of actual responsibilities of junior-college teachers, in this instance to the portion reporting the combinations of subjects in which they are called on to give instruction. This investigation found recurrent combinations that point to the appropriateness of preparation in broad fields rather than the usual departments.²

Changes during the Year

The brief review of returns to the follow-up letter mentioned in an early paragraph of this article is now in order. At this writing, about a month after the letters were sent out, forty-four answers are at hand.

Thirty report no changes in the provisions for junior-college teacher preparation. The April, 1948, *Junior College Journal* (p. 445) contained a list of thirty-four institutions that seemed to be doing more than others toward preparing junior-college teachers. Of this number, twenty-one have made replies to date, eight of them reporting changes toward strengthening their programs—one by developing a series of three courses, two by adding a course on the junior college, one by adding a summer workshop, one by developing the curriculum more fully, and three by adding leadership in the way of specialists in the junior-college field. Of the institutions not on the April list, twenty-three have made replies, and of these, six report changes significant for junior-college teacher preparation: two have added a course on the junior-college movement; another, a course on higher education emphasizing problems of the junior college; two are developing programs of college-teacher preparation; one is offering a course in junior-college administration and a workshop on the junior college.

Several respondents from both groups report having made recommendations looking toward developing programs or express an intent to take steps in that direction at an early date.

One may infer from these letters

² *Ibid.*, pp. 198-204.

that the rate of establishing and developing programs is certainly not precipitate. Nevertheless, the changes reported are indicative of progress. Persons interested in the growth and welfare of the junior-college movement will be impatient at the rate and will hope for some acceleration in the near future.

A Concluding Observation

The evidence in the foregoing tables and the running commentary are so simple that a summary and any considerable additional interpretation in closing seem unnecessary. A single observation is made, one that seems justified by the picture of practices as a whole: it is in the nature of an exaggeration to refer to the provisions toward junior-college teacher preparation in most of these institutions as

"programs," in a sense comparable to the programs of preparation for high-school teaching in these same institutions. At the same time, the substantial beginnings made in a number of institutions, combined with the expressed interest of respondents in establishing programs, is assurance of steady, even if not rapid, development toward adequacy. The present limited development is regrettable, both from the standpoint of the present number and impending growth of junior colleges and from the standpoint of what is known about the responsibilities of junior-college teachers. Enough is now known about junior colleges and about the duties of teachers in them to project programs on a much more nearly complete and adequate basis than that on which they are operating in 1949.

A Clinic for Secretarial Students

SISTER MARY IMMACULATA

OUR business students, before they make their first appearance in the business world, should have some understanding of the problems and the people that they will meet in offices. It is our responsibility, as their teachers, to make sure that they are given a clear perspective, a distinct aim, and a forcible grasp of the definite situations, the specifics of office work, that will confront them in the offices in which they will work.

To give every student out-of-school work experience would be most useful, but not all schools can do this or wish to do so. Many schools prefer to give partial experience under complete supervisory control rather than to give complete experience with little supervisory control. However, every secretarial-training program should certainly include some practice in office situations beyond those described in textbooks, so that through reality students can be motivated to improvement in both

the skills and the attributes essential to office success.

Through a period of years we have evolved for students at Mount Mercy Junior College, a special kind of office-situation training, namely, a secretarial clinic. We find that our clinics serve admirably the purpose for which they are designed. Because the clinic program not only is valuable to the students but also is easy to arrange in any school, we present this explanation of our program.

Nature of the Program

Our clinic has developed into an annual training period carried on during the last eight or ten weeks in the last semester of the junior-college program. Once each week a businessman visits us for a special two-hour meeting, during which he acts as a guest "counselor." Last year, for example, our calendar included:

- O. A. Kearney, Merchants National Bank
- J. J. Carney, Marchant Calculating Machine Company
- M. W. O'Riley, Attorney
- A. L. Taylor, Chamber of Commerce
- H. Harstad, Iowa Title and Abstract Company

SISTER MARY IMMACULATA is a member of the faculty of the Mount Mercy Junior College at Cedar Rapids, Iowa.

J. J. Shepard, Shepard Insurance Company
H. B. Lien, Eddy Paper Corporation
R. Wray, Iowa Mutual Liability Insurance Company
Miss D. Manchester, Gordon-Fennel Export Company
Miss M. Carr, Mutual Insurance Company

Each of these visitors had a particular point of view to express. Some, for example, reported that they give specific details to their stenographers, while others do not. Some wanted to "counsel" our students by giving advice, while others felt that enacting their office situation was the best counseling. Thus our students learned the great lesson that offices and office practices vary. To be certain that our speakers represent widely varied business interests, invitations are extended long in advance.

Clinic Meeting

Each clinic conference opens with informal discussion on the essentials of a good secretary, as the counselor views them. What do the counselors talk about? The most frequent starting point in their discussions concerns mechanical skill.

"A firm foundation of skill in writing shorthand rapidly and accurately and in transcribing accurately, rapidly, and neatly is fundamental," one counselor advised the clinic group. The following week brought a big improvement in interest in those skills!

Another speaker said, "Mechani-

cal technique in shorthand and typing is a prime requisite. I agree with what Paderewski once said: that three things are necessary—first, technique; second, technique; and third, technique!"

Most speakers, however, discussed matters of attitude and office behavior. "Remember," one speaker cautioned, "your time belongs to your employer. My work is professional. The work for which I pay a salary must also be professional."

Still another speaker said, "You must have trust in the people with whom you work and for whom you work, and you must demonstrate reasons why they should trust you."

As would be expected, many mentioned the importance of courtesy, of initiative, of resourcefulness, of keeping tools in good shape. Some counselors went into more detail, pointing out that in their offices they expected a telephone call when a worker knew he would be late, that they expected conservative clothing and neat appearance—but that the neat appearance should be refreshed on the worker's own time and not on the employer's time.

Hearing these things (which are, after all, merely reiterations of what students read in their books and what their teachers frequently say) directly from businessmen and businesswomen makes a deep impression on the students.

The opening discussion is usu-

ally limited to about fifteen minutes and is followed by explanation of the special forms used in the speaker's office. Thus legal forms, specimen orders and bills, and the like are presented to the students, who examine them with keen interest. Then actual work begins.

The counselor takes over the instructor's desk and makes it his own. One by one, the students come to his desk for dictation, and he dictates materials that he actually wants to mail—letters, forms, wills, leases, and so on. He enacts his own office manner as faithfully as he can. For example, he interrupts abruptly and asks his "secretary" to read, in whole or in part, what he has said; and he lets his voice race or drag as is his custom. While the student secretary is at his desk, the other members of the class take the same dictation at their own desks. Thus the whole class profits.

After an hour of such dictation, the students make personal application for employment, and the counselor interviews as many as he has time for. From one student he may (and often does, quite sincerely) request a formal letter of application; for another, he may demonstrate how quickly he can say "no"; with still another, he may make an appointment for a later meeting.

After the Meeting

On the first day after the clinic session, the students transcribe

their notes. All the transcripts are sent to the businessman's office. He selects the best transcripts and uses them (how proud that honor makes the student!) and returns all the others with his comments and an indication of the acceptability of the work in his office. It is generous of our counselors to contribute so much, of course, but all have been happy to do so.

Some counselors take their responsibility gravely and write small essays in the margins. "You are a member of our business family," one wrote, "and so I expect better work." Particular points on which the commentators express themselves are neatness, accuracy, erasures, correction of English, and the like.

In the sessions of class that follow each meeting of the clinic, we evaluate what we have learned and take immediate steps to apply the advice of our counselors. The impact of the clinic, in terms of motivation power, can hardly be exaggerated.

One reason for the success of the clinic, it seems, is the fact that we do all we can to set the stage. On the day of the clinic, we convert our orthodox classroom into a miniature office. The girls come to class dressed for business, ready for their interviews. Deportment is completely adult, and, in so far as possible, the enactment of the office situation during the dictation period is faithful to actuality.

Is It Worth While?

Are the values of the clinic enough to warrant a trial in other schools? I think so.

Certainly the response of the counselors, on whom the burden of work falls, is favorable.

"Not only ourselves but the community at large has benefited," said Attorney O'Riley, "because we feel that the clinics have raised the standards of secretaries, made us aware of the changing methods of production of office work, and brought into our offices competent, experienced, and very alert, young businesswomen."

From Mr. Shepard: "I was not satisfied with what I got across to the girls in my allotted time. Could I come back?"

Ray C. Phelan, personnel manager of the Fruehauf Trailer Company, wrote, "The opportunity to

speak to your class was thoroughly enjoyed by the writer. I was very favorably impressed with the alertness of the entire group and found the letters splendidly done."

The difference in the training of our graduates is also clear to anyone who has been associated with our school long enough to remember the graduates who did not have clinic training. The old questions of "What do I do?" and "What do I say?" are no longer asked. The edge of experience is worn smooth.

The clinic has many values—values for the businessman, who finds himself learning even as he is teaching in our clinic; values for our students in giving them a fine experience and motivating their work; and, not surprisingly, values for our school as a public-relations project and a means of assisting in placement.

Junior-College World

J E S S E P . B O G U E
Executive Secretary

MASSACHUSETTS VISITATION AND STUDIES

Recognizing the need for co-operative study to understand better the distinctive procedures and mutual problems among junior colleges in the state, the Massachusetts Association of Resident Junior Colleges last winter undertook a program of critical analysis of standards and objectives within its own membership.

An outgrowth of ideas expressed at the Kansas City convention of the American Association of Junior Colleges, together with definite plans for improvements and concern for the needs within its own group, brought about a study program for this state association. Its membership includes representatives of resident junior colleges, who belong to the New England Junior College Council. The first concern of the Massachusetts Association has been with actual visitations to each member-college. In the interest of primary research, the group periodically meets at a specified institution for an all-inclusive tour and analysis of the campus. During the morning, classes are audited;

laboratory equipment is examined; and dormitory, health, and recreational facilities are inspected for outstanding characteristics or limitations.

During the business meeting following luncheon, which concludes an extended tour of a campus and its facilities, there is a sincere attempt on the part of the members to evaluate the academic and administrative standards of the institution and to offer objective suggestions and helpful comments for betterment and improvement. Matters concerning courses and content, laboratory equipment and procedures, methods of greater efficiency and student participation in the program, as well as questions and problems of an administrative nature or concerning physical improvements needed, are discussed very frankly.

During the year each member-institution carries on individual research on junior-college standards in various regions of the United States. By February, 1949, the group will have completed their campus visitations and will commence study seminars to consider

standardization of criteria within the junior colleges. Dr. Eleanor Tupper, dean of Endicott Junior College, in Beverly, is chairman of the Massachusetts Association.

This writer wishes to commend the Massachusetts plan to the consideration of other states. He would like to suggest that, in addition to the intervisitation program, aimed largely at the level of administration interests, state workshops for all teachers and staff personnel be conducted at least once each year. The Washington state plan is commended. By all means the members of our faculties must become aware of the unique functions of the junior colleges and have a chance to meet for discussions of mutual problems. This need has been felt so keenly in Texas that the teachers in that state have organized the Texas Junior College Teachers' Association and will hold their first two-day convention in Fort Worth on March 4 and 5, 1949.

OPHTHALMOLOGY AT WESTBROOK

In Portland, Maine, there is another junior college, namely, Westbrook, a college for women, pulled out of almost complete failure a few years ago by Dr. Milton D. Proctor and his co-workers. Westbrook and Portland Junior Colleges are bringing to a close a city-wide and metropolitan community survey. They plan to co-operate in of-

fering further courses of study for the citizens of the community in fields needed by personnel in business, the professions, and industry. This plan provides a good example of the way in which institutions, operated in New England under private enterprise, can and do carry on community services in direct response to community needs.

During the past two summers, Westbrook has been host to more than 250 physicians who have been furthering their training in the field of ophthalmology. At the summer session in 1948, thirty-two states, the Philippine Islands, China, Syria, Iceland, and Canada were represented. The students reside on the campus, and all facilities of the laboratories, classrooms, lecture halls, and recreation grounds are made available to them. The course runs from eleven to twelve weeks, and plans have been made for another session in the summer of 1949.

Westbrook gives generous assistance in arranging for clam bakes, boat rides, fishing trips, excursions, and many other forms of recreation. A graduate of the junior college has organized a kindergarten for the smaller children who come with their parents to the summer session. Over forty thousand dollars' worth of special equipment is used for instruction.

This writer knows of other junior colleges, delightfully located for

summer work of a similar nature, that might profit in many ways by offering their facilities. Not the least of the benefits may be good relations with the public that no amount of money can buy—the good word of the physicians and their families who come from all sections of the nation and from other countries.

PORTLAND ON THE AIR

Portland Junior College, Portland, Maine, has a student radio staff of twenty-five members operating under the leadership of John V. Jaques as faculty adviser. The staff is organized under the student council of the College and is financially supported from the council's student-activity funds.

Currently three weekly broadcasts are presented. One, with an all-student cast, is entitled "Portland Junior College on the Air" and goes over WPOR from 8:00 to 8:15 P.M. every Tuesday. Each Sunday from 7:00 to 7:30 P.M. the "Great Books Discussion Series" is on the air. "News and Views of Portland Junior College," a five-minute broadcast, goes over station WMTW. The dramatic club is arranging for a monthly show to be sent out over station WGAN.

This writer commented in the *Washington Newsletter* in June, 1948, on the splendid public relations in the city of Portland between the junior college, the city,

and the state of Maine. Reference was made to the presence of Governor Hildreth of Maine, Senator Margaret Chase Smith, the presidents of practically all senior colleges of the state, high-ranking city officials, and junior-college administrators from several states at the dedication of the new buildings of the college last May 16th. The state legislature appropriated fifty thousand dollars to the junior college although it is privately controlled and administered. President Bonney evidently "knows his stuff" when it comes to administration, especially in establishing and maintaining good public relations through valuable services to the community.

OKLAHOMA JUNIOR COLLEGES

During the month of February the Junior College Section of the Oklahoma Education Association holds a special meeting, with a program planned by Superintendent O. D. Johns, chairman. Three major functions of the junior college will be presented in a symposium: the upward extension of secondary education in the community; lower-division offerings in arts and sciences; the variety of needs to be met in the several communities. Part of the program will be devoted to counseling.

The Junior College Committee is giving special attention during this year's visitation to the junior-col-

lege libraries and science-teaching. Staff members and librarians from senior institutions are assisting the committee members in the visitations. Visitation in Oklahoma is an annual performance.

Progress reports about the junior colleges of the state are most encouraging. Bacone, the only junior college in the United States for Indian students, has recently completed the construction of a new gymnasium, 60 by 120 feet, and is improving the adjoining outdoor fields for all sports. One of the specialties at Bacone is boxing. Maybe some other junior colleges have boxing teams that would like to take the Indian boys on for a few rounds!

Northeastern Oklahoma A. and M. College, a junior college at Miami, entertained 310 teachers from Ottawa County. The Chamber of Commerce at Miami co-operated with the college in providing the dinner and prizes. The principal speaker was Dr. M. L. Wardell, of the University of Oklahoma. "Junior-College World" extends congratulations to Bruce Carter for this splendid piece of public relations and commends it to the attention of other junior colleges. Northeastern recently ordered a thousand copies of *In Your Hands, Your Future: Have You Thought of Junior College Teaching?*

Two new buildings have been erected at Sayre; four, at Connors State. Altus College, after a quarter

of a century in the high school, has moved into its own building but continues to share the laboratory facilities of the high school. Northeastern has acquired title to twenty acres of land and twelve buildings, valued at half a million dollars. Northern Oklahoma at Tonkawa is constructing new classrooms from surplus buildings secured from a near-by camp, and on December 10th the remodeled field-house was dedicated with the opening basketball game against Oklahoma Military Academy.

Junior colleges are becoming "bowl conscious." The Little Rose Bowl game at Pasadena between Compton and Duluth (Minnesota) drew a record crowd of over fifty-one thousand. Compton won by a rather wide margin. Now we have had the Eastern Oklahoma A. and M. versus Magnolia in the Papoose Bowl, and Northeastern versus Trinidad (Colorado) in the Salt Bowl, both on New Year's Day. Speaking of the Rose Bowl, did you know that the queen of the tournament last year was from John Muir College and this year from Pasadena City College? Apparently the big boys come to junior for the pretty gals!

IOWA JUNIOR COLLEGES

There are now twenty public and seven private junior colleges in Iowa. Three public colleges were closed last year because of small

enrolments. Six of the private colleges are active members of the American Association and nine of the public. Seven of the latter were accepted during the past year: Centerville, Creston, Ellsworth, Emmetsburg, Estherville, Muscatine, and Sheldon. The junior-college workshop held at the State University of Iowa last summer stimulated interest among the colleges in, and created greater cooperation with, the American Association. The State Association has gone on record as desiring to give a most cordial invitation for the 1951 national convention to be held at Des Moines, and Charles E. Hill, dean at Creston, will extend the invitation to the Board of Directors at San Francisco for the State Association. Dr. Harvey Davis, formerly executive vice-president of Ohio State University, has been secured for the staff of Iowa State University, where he will devote considerable time as a consultant to junior colleges.

Standards for accreditation and certification for the junior colleges have been rewritten and adopted by the State Department of Education. A number of significant improvements have been made. The standards have been printed and may be secured from J. P. Street, deputy superintendent of public instruction, at the State Department of Education in Des Moines.

The junior colleges of Iowa have

a splendid program of intercollegiate activities in athletics, music, drama, and speech. The present officers of the state association are: *president*, Dean A. W. Langerak of Webster City; *vice-president*, Dean P. B. Sharar of Clinton; *secretary-treasurer*, Dean J. H. Hill of Ellsworth Junior College at Iowa Falls; *executive member*, Dean Charles E. Hill of Creston. The Fine Arts Festival will be held at Boone Junior College on April 1, 1949, and the State Junior College Council will meet at Fort Dodge on February 24th.

MARS HILL COLLEGE

This writer received an invitation, which he had to decline with deep regret, to the dedication dinner and program at Mars Hill College, Mars Hill, North Carolina, last Thanksgiving Day. The occasion was the formal opening of the Coyte Bridges Memorial Dining Hall. This building is equipped with the most modern kitchens, exquisite furnishings, and convenient arrangements. It contains both student and faculty dining-rooms, music-room, and the student center. It is part of the Enlargement Program of Mars Hill.

A tradition at the college is of interest. Early on Thanksgiving morning a special group of singers dressed in Colonial and Indian costumes appear on the campus and make their way through the town singing sacred and patriotic songs.

At eleven o'clock the Pilgrims and Indians of the singing group enter the chapel and present an original pageant appropriate for the day. The football game in the afternoon was Mars Hill versus Brevard. Mars Hill became a junior college in 1921, although the school was founded in 1856. It is coeducational; is affiliated with the Baptist Church; has an enrolment of nearly fifteen hundred students; and is fully accredited by the state, the State University, and the Southern Association.

FOR YOUR PUBLIC-RELATIONS NOTEBOOK

We are pleased to quote from the *Tyler (Texas) Morning Telegraph* of September 7, 1948, an interesting story of what would appear to be a fine public-relations activity by students of Tyler Junior College. Previously, in the September issue of the *Junior College Journal*, we called attention to the exhibit for junior colleges made at the Illinois State Fair. Reports are that a great deal of attention was attracted by it. Now comes news of another exhibit in Texas that drew attention not only locally but also on a national "ham" hook-up.

When it comes to making "contacts," perhaps no Tylerite has made more during the past few weeks than has B. M. Frazer, local radio "ham" and instructor in radio courses at the Tyler Junior College.

Frazer has been busy day and night "contacting" other amateur radio op-

erators over the United States and making arrangements for them to handle messages for the Tyler Junior College transmitter which will be located on the fairgrounds at the East Texas Fair which opens here next Monday.

Already Frazer has lined up radio operators in all 48 states and in the District of Columbia and is still making arrangements with additional operators to make his "network" complete by the time the fair opens.

The Tyler Junior College radio station at the fairgrounds will occupy its own building and will house two transmitters—the 1,000-watt W5ALL, call letters assigned in 1920 to Frazer's personal station, and the 300-watt transmitter which the fifteen students in the two-year radio course at the college have constructed themselves.

Open from 7 A.M. until 10 P.M. each day of the fair, the radio unit will transmit free of charge messages of the fair visitors to any point in the United States. Besides Frazer, two other Tyler amateur radio operators—O. C. Palmer, of W5CMJ, and A. J. Krkmas, of W5MMC—will be on hand to handle the transmitters while members of the college radio class will be present to accept and deliver messages and explain the equipment to the public.

An added attraction of radio exhibit will be the electrical map of the United States. It will not only show Tyler, the transmission point, but also the state with which the local station is in communication, will light up.

In lining up his fellow "hams" over the nation, Frazer has given the approaching East Texas Fair and Texas Jersey and Cattle Club Show a nationwide reputation.

Just to show how he is getting around over the nation, Frazer this week end called the city desk of the

Tyler Morning Telegraph and put it on a direct phone-radio hook-up with W9JIE, operated by Fred J. Patti, of 8811 Lowe Avenue, Chicago, and W9UNC, the station of Harry L. Roscoe, 2658 East 77th Street, Chicago.

Both Patti and Roscoe, evidently well versed by Frazer in the many stellar attractions that the Tyler exposition will be offering, voiced their regrets that they would be unable to attend the fair in person, but promise to protect the Chicago front in delivery of messages from the Tyler station during fair week.

EASTERN OKLAHOMA A. AND M.

Eastern Oklahoma A. and M. College at Wilburton has inaugurated a new night course for students and the general public on "National and International Issues." Faculty members and speak-

ers from over the state who are recognized students of such issues use a portion of the hour to present the problem, and the latter part of the meeting is devoted to a round-table discussion by audience and speakers.

One hundred and sixty students and adults are enrolled in the course, and many more attend the sessions held each Thursday evening on the campus. Such topics as "Problems of the Near East," "Responsibilities of Citizens Today," "Federal Aid to Education," and "Conservation and World Food Supply" have aroused a great deal of interest and discussion. The course extends through the entire semester.

From the Executive Secretary's Desk

JESSE P. BOGUE

FROM the presses has come the first publication resulting from the Life Adjustment Education studies conducted by a special commission appointed by the United States Commissioner of Education. Junior colleges were represented by President Charles S. Wilkins of the State Agricultural and Mechanical College, Magnolia, Arkansas. The publication is well illustrated in two colors and is written for popular reading. Technical academic language has been avoided.

"High School . . . What's in it for ME?" a lad in his early 'teens appears to be saying as he sits on the street curbing. This, on the outside cover page. As you turn the cover, your eye catches an illustration sweeping across the first and bleeding off onto the second page. The caption is: "Our High Schools Don't Make Sense for 60% of Our Kids." Young people are streaming into the high school. Out they are coming, illustrated by strong green lines (Is the color significant?)

showing that 20 per cent are bound for college, 20 for skilled occupations, and 60 per cent into jobs that require little pre-service technical training. Turn another page. One hundred are entering high school, but fifty-five are voting their sentiments about its values to them by the only method they know—dropping out! Forty-five out of one hundred remain in school until they graduate.

Turn another page. Here the myth of the white-collar profession is blasted. There are in the nation 156,000 physicians, 19,600 architects, 173,000 lawyers, but there are 1,500,000 chauffeurs, 4,400,000 clerks and salesmen, and 859,000 mechanics. The center spread hits the nub of the study because here are shown the areas of life to which proper adjustment must be made by all people: as members of a family, as consumers, workers, taxpayers, and voters! The remainder of the booklet is devoted to descriptions of the type of education required for these functions and to examples of how it is being attempted in high schools in various sections of the nation. It is emphasized that the *whole person* must be educated; that for this purpose "the traditional curriculum is far below subsistence level."

All youth need instruction in human relations [runs the report], civic obligations, consumer education, work ex-

perience, physical and emotional health, and international affairs. Such studies help smooth the continuing perplexities adults face in trying to be effective workers, consumers, citizens, and parents. Such studies face up to the demands made of all individuals who would live whole and significant lives.

Today the traditional curriculum of specialized courses offers thin and unsatisfying fare. It must be reinforced.

A short time ago in one of the great cities of the Middle West, this writer entered into a conversation with a man who kept the washroom of a "swank" hotel. His accent was definitely foreign. Boiling down the conversation, the essence of the washroom-keeper's side ran something like this:

"I have been at this job for twenty-nine years. I have no education, but I can do this job well. I have a good wife and five kids. I own my home, and I don't owe a penny to anybody. It's been pretty hard many times to get along, but my wife is a good worker and helps me save. We always say our kids will have good American education. My oldest boy has graduated from college and has a good business job. My second boy, he is very smart and will some day be a doctor. Two girls are in high school, and the youngest will be next year. Yes, sir, I did vote for President Truman, and I always voted for Mr. Roosevelt because they believe in people like me."

There, and in millions of other

cases, we have the worker, family man, consumer, citizen as taxpayer and voter! The areas of life in which practically every normal citizen lives and moves—whether in a white collar or a blue one—have been singled out for attention by the Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth. Even though individual students will become doctors, architects, and lawyers, and will enter the semiprofessional fields, the skilled occupations, or those that require very limited training, practically all students will assume, sooner or later, responsibilities as family members, as citizens, consumers, and voters. Their votes will decide, in a large measure, the direction our governments will take on the local, national, and international levels of action. Even the man in the washroom will help decide the direction of the Marshall Plan, the kind of educational support we shall have, and the type of social legislation that will be passed.

Junior colleges have been deeply interested in general education, largely from the discussion point of view. Their actual programs are too often determined by the plans and dictates of senior institutions to which their graduates expect to transfer. High-school programs also have been dictated by college requirements as to subject matter and sequence of studies, even though it is well known that the particular pattern of studies is far

less important than the ability of the student and his habits of study. Conversations are under way in several sections of the country between junior and senior colleges looking toward better adjustment of these problems. In the spring of 1948, Ruth E. Maguire, of Bakersfield Junior College, Bakersfield, California, based her Master's thesis at Syracuse University on a study of 430 junior-college students who had transferred to that institution from 1937 to 1946. The most interesting aspect of Miss Maguire's study relates to the success of the terminal student who had entered the University. She shows that the student from the junior-college terminal or semiprofessional curriculums "achieved as well, or better, academically than the student prepared in the general academic curriculum."¹

If there is any defect in the Life Adjustment Education program, it is in its lack of *emphasis* on the need for *general education* for all persons regardless of race, color, sex, or financial or employment status. Many interesting discussions have been held in the Board of Directors of our Association as to just what constitutes a junior college or a like institution even though it may not be called by that name. This discussion has gone on for a number

¹ Ruth E. Maguire, "A Descriptive Study of 430 Junior College Students Transferring to Syracuse University from 1937 to 1946, Inclusive." Unpublished Master's thesis, Syracuse University, 1948.

of years, and the question came in for heated debate at the national convention in 1946 on the occasion of the adoption of the new constitution. Gradually the conviction is becoming accepted that no post-high-school educational program can be regarded as of junior-college grade unless there is evidence of considerable general education for every full-time student. It is imperative, therefore, that attention be given to this question by faculties and administrators engaged in curriculum studies. This writer recommends careful study of the Basic College program at Michigan State College, the General College of Boston University, General College at the University of Minnesota, the Lower Division program of the University of Florida, the general-education plans for the Chicago City Junior College, the University of Chicago, and others that could be named. The aforementioned, however, will indicate trends that study committees should ponder with care.

The problem of integrating general and vocational education as one and not two programs has been stressed by the Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education. This writer was invited a few months ago to inspect a school conducted on one of our great military air bases for the training of highly skilled mechanics. Both mil-

itary and civilian personnel in charge of the school were deeply concerned, not so much with the technical phases of the work, as with the upgrading of related academic subjects and especially with general education in the social sciences and the humanities. Technical education had just about everything one could desire—laboratories, materials, instructors, and student interest. In the case of general education, the main difficulty seemed to be in creating student interest in the fact that they, as persons, are of greater importance than the jobs they were being trained to do. One of the men most deeply concerned was a retired marine colonel, who had seen some of the hard facts of life. He realized that human beings are more than adjuncts to machines and that mechanical skills are maintained best when men who perform them are nourished by social intelligence and emotional appreciation and stability.

You will be interested to see that, while the Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth wrote the report which furnishes the motive for this discussion, it was produced by the American Technical Society of Chicago! Single copies are free to educators from the Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, Washington 25, D.C.

Recent Writings

Judging the New Books

CYRIL O. HOULE, ELBERT W. BURR, THOMAS H. HAMILTON, and JOHN R. YALE, for the Commission on Implications of Armed Services Educational Programs, *The Armed Services and Adult Education*. Washington: American Council on Education, 1947. Pp. xv + 257. \$3.00.

This book is a descriptive study of the broad range of off-duty, adult-education opportunities provided by the Army, Navy, Marine Corps, and Coast Guard during and immediately after the war. Consideration of strictly military training is avoided. The book inventories all the major service-connected nonmilitary educational programs and portrays them in panoramic fashion. Since detailed analysis of their successes and failures is not possible in a work of this size, such analysis is not attempted. Little time is spent in dreaming of what might have been, although the

authors frankly recognize that lack of enthusiastic support and encouragement both inside and outside the chain of command often resulted in inadequate programs, particularly early in the war. The account of the programs is based on personal testimony of participants and on documents made available by the armed forces to the staff of the Commission on Implications of Armed Services Educational Programs of the American Council on Education, under whose auspices the study was made.

Adult education is defined as "the conscious effort of the mature individual to improve himself through the acquisition of skills, knowledge, attitudes, understandings, and appreciations" (p. 8). The purpose of the study was primarily to review and examine the off-duty programs in the armed services of the United States in order to determine the positive implications for civilian adult education. Because of their significance for peacetime adult education, certain other programs, such as that of literacy training, have been included, although they were largely

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compulsory and were conducted almost entirely on scheduled time.

It is no small task to chart scores of fluid programs which together grew into the most extensive adult-education enterprise in our national history. Houle, Burr, Hamilton, and Yale manage to do this without becoming encyclopedic. In the first chapter they analyze the total activity in terms of purposes. A brief review of the history of off-duty education before World War II is followed by a statement of wartime growth in the concept of the purposes of such education in each of the four branches. Shortly before the war, off-duty educational activities in the Army were a responsibility of the Morale Division in the Adjutant General's Office. The history of the growth of educational programs from the early nebulous stages is fully as interesting to an educator as is the development of any other phase of a growing military establishment. The viewpoints of the military concerning educational programs which do not seem to contribute directly to the making of a fighting man are likewise interesting to a professional educator. The slowness with which some of the major programs got under way, especially in the Navy, should at least call forth an administrator's sympathy.

The second chapter deals with the selection, training, and assignment of educational personnel in

the various programs of the four branches. The chapter outlines the organization and structure of the Information and Education Program of the Army, the Educational Services Section of the Navy, the Special Services Branch of the Marine Corps, and the Training Division of the Coast Guard. The handicaps of procuring and training adequate personnel when education was given minor consideration in the early months are clearly evident.

Special programs which were common to two or more branches of the armed services are described in chapters iii through viii. The story of the United States Armed Forces Institute is probably best known but is told here in postwar perspective. The impact of the extensive wartime correspondence-study program will undoubtedly be felt by schools and colleges for years to come.

The variety of opportunities in "Direct Individual and Group Instruction" fill a chapter. Civilian directors of adult education can find many parallels in the program of voluntary evening classes and discussion groups in each service. The influence of the foreign-language programs on instruction in colleges and high schools should be considerable.

The Army Post-Hostilities Schools, described in chapter v, represent a significant development

made possible by timely planning. Several Army University centers were established in each hemisphere, and more than two thousand unit schools of less than university grade were in operation at one time or another. The intensive pressure to bring the troops home after the cessation of hostilities interfered considerably with the well-laid plans for utilizing these post-hostilities schools as a mechanism for adjustment to civilian life.

The work of the Orientation and Information branches and the Library Services in camps, hospitals, and in overseas theaters fills two chapters. Educators interested in the use of mass media can probably find much to study in the orientation and information programs of the Army.

The literacy training programs of the Army and Navy (chapter viii) have enlisted wide professional interest because of their recognized success under special conditions present only, or optimally, in military service. Regular and compulsory attendance, concentrated schedules, reasonably small classes, in-service training of instructors, a narrow supervisor-teacher ratio, careful and continuous grading based on frequent testing, ample and carefully graded materials, a multiplicity of educational tools, and high motivation brought results. They point the way for progress in our civilian illiteracy

problem although many of these conditions often are lacking in the public schools.

Guidance and counseling activities (chapter ix) were connected with the induction, selection, assignment, and separation processes of all branches of the armed services. Needs ranged from advice on selection of U.S.A.F.I. courses to vocational rehabilitation. By the end of the war, guidance services had reached a relatively high state of development although, again, the changed psychology played havoc with much of the potential effectiveness of the program.

The chapter on "Motivation and Recruitment Effort" deals with "publicity" and related attempts to inform military personnel of the education services available. Methods used ran the gamut and included a few particularly applicable in the armed forces. It is regrettable that no studies of the effect of specific methods were available as possible guides in civilian programs.

Both the Army and the Navy engaged in extensive research in the attitudes, motivation, needs, and desires of their personnel. Carefully controlled techniques of the opinion-polling type and other kinds of surveys were used to explore interests as a basis for planning and improving programs.

A chapter on "Investigation and Evaluation" briefly portrays this

research and reviews the attempts made to determine the effectiveness of programs after they were under way.

The most valuable chapter is the last one, "Implications." Any adult educator reading the descriptive portions of the earlier chapters will see parallels which are likely to give him ideas for improvement of his own program. Houle, in his usual able way, has teased out of the mass of wartime experience a set of fifty-one generalizations which have meaning to adult educators largely in so far as the needs and interests of their clientele parallel those of the armed forces personnel. For the most part, the implications are not new to those versed in adult education although demonstration of the principles by the largest program of adult education ever organized ought to strengthen their acceptance. They range all the way from broad and general statements of far-reaching significance, such as "Adult educational activities should be introduced into the primary associations and institutions to which people belong" (p. 230), to the more detailed and immediate, "Course offerings in adult

education should be organized in integrated blocks of work, each requiring a limited period of time for completion" (p. 237). On the whole, the implications are the guideposts which any director can well keep in mind as he seeks to develop a broad program.

In the main, the book fulfills its announced purpose. Those desiring more information often can trace out further data through footnote references or the Bibliography. The organization of the book is clear; one can pick out specific parts for satisfying study without having to read everything in sequence. In thirty minutes one can, by reading the last chapter, extract the findings of weeks of work. Ten minutes are enough for the italicized implications. Yet a director of education could well spend an occasional hour pondering what a few of the implications mean for his program. Houle and his co-workers have stated a good share of the basic principles of adult education. It now remains for many of them to be carried into practice in civilian programs.

HOMER KEMPFER

Selected References

SEBASTIAN V. MARTORANA

BALYEAT, FRANK A. "Junior Colleges in Oklahoma." *Chronicles of Oklahoma*, XXVI (Spring, 1948), 56-62.

Traces the development of state, municipal (or district), and independent junior colleges in Oklahoma during the past quarter-century. In general, the state schools have been the most permanent and steady in their growth. The growth in "the group of municipal schools, upper growth of the high schools in certain districts, has witnessed too little planning and resulting uncertainty and instability." Private ventures in the junior-college field have been almost absent from the Oklahoma picture.

"With the rounding-out of the first quarter-century of junior colleges in Oklahoma, the time has come to shape this movement into a planned program. So far little attempt has been made in long-range planning or in legislation to make the junior colleges an integral part of secondary and higher education." These statements introduce a review of the existing situation in Oklahoma and a discussion of the causal factors motivating development of junior colleges there.

Twelve municipal (district) junior colleges are reported to be in operation in the state. Gradually these schools are acquiring a broader function. "The terminal concept of municipal junior-college work is growing slowly in Oklahoma, more slowly than in some other states. Both at home and at the senior colleges, whither most of these students are now bound, the idea prevails that this study, conveniently and less expensively done nearer home, is but to prepare for second or third year of college work or for vocational training to be done elsewhere later."

For nearly two decades the municipal junior colleges operated without explicit legal sanction, but with obvious public approval. The

high-school building and staff have been shared, the expense being proportioned. The college share has been borne by tuition. The situation thus portrayed, however, is changing: "In 1939 permissive legislation was enacted by the state. The bill merely legalized the practice of nearly twenty years. In recent legislatures some attempt has been made to get a beginning of state aid for these schools. Sentiment has grown in favor of this assistance, and apparently the development of a systematic program and improvement of standards are needed before argument can be made sufficiently convincing to secure the needed and deserved state help."

Three of the seven state-controlled junior colleges in Oklahoma grew from regional schools for the training of youth in the agricultural, mechanical, business, and domestic arts. Others developed variously from state schools of mines, a state university preparatory school, and a state military academy. Logically enough, it is observed: "As one reads these condensed reviews of the seven state colleges now operating, he is struck with the fact that through the years Oklahoma has not definitely planned a program of public junior colleges. Not one of them started as a junior college. For various reasons and through varied and uncertain experiences, they have come to fill a valuable and important place in the state's educational plan. The time has come when Oklahoma's experience and that of other states should be utilized in careful, long-range planning to fit the present facilities into the pattern of what will be needed for the years ahead."

Concerning the independent junior colleges in Oklahoma, Balyeat draws the conclusion: "From time to time several of the church schools in Oklahoma, both in territorial days and since, have really been junior colleges. Some of them grew through that status into

degree-granting schools. Others have discontinued upper-division work and have become junior colleges in fact, if not in name." The history of five church-controlled institutions is described. These, together with one private vocational junior college, constitute the extent of independent junior-college development in the state.

JOHNSON, KATHLEEN. "Home Economics Teachers for the Junior College," *University of Washington College of Education Record*, XIV (January, 1948), 41-42.

Poses two related problems concerning junior-college personnel: developing a curriculum for young women and finding broadly trained, well-qualified teachers of home economics. The first problem is currently accentuated by the increasing desire of young people to attend school beyond Grade XII. "Some of these students want basic education, some wish to prepare for better positions, some merely wish the prestige of further schooling. At present most students enter college or university, but many of them would better find what they need in junior colleges or in the thirteenth and fourteenth grades of the extended secondary school. They wish to acquire vocational skills mainly, having little interest in the scientific principles and background knowledge presented in a university."

Junior-college teachers of home economics, therefore, are faced with deciding what areas of knowledge besides vocational work shall be available to young women. On this score it is noted: "Undoubtedly there will be some courses of a relatively mature level which will aid them in becoming good and responsible citizens in a democracy. And likewise there should be an opportunity to gain further training and understanding of what is involved in that most demanding and important of all jobs, that of homemaker."

The author asserts: "It is in [the] areas of choice-making, values, and satisfactions, together with the emphasis on the application of knowledge and the accomplishment of plans, that the challenge to teaching lies. In order to teach successfully and vitally, the

teacher needs the broad human understanding, the backgrounds of philosophy, art, and science, as well as ability in the particular skills she is teaching. Colleges and universities wonder whether they are providing an opportunity for junior-college teachers to gain such a background. Are graduate programs flexible enough and broad enough to enable a woman to prepare herself for teaching in such schools?"

It is further maintained: "If the teachers are to handle intelligently at the adult level economic factors that affect the home, they need more than a nodding acquaintance with economics and the application and ramifications of the factors involved, not only for the home but for the community at large and for business, as they are all interrelated."

In conclusion, attention is drawn to the University of Washington's proposed program for training home-economics teachers. This program would give more emphasis to the fields of family economics, family relationships, home management, and home furnishing. "This training . . . would prepare women to teach courses concerned with the economic aspects of running a home and family, the choice, purchase, use, and care of equipment and furnishings, the management of time and energy in the home, and the supervision of a home management house or apartment."

MORPHET, EDGAR L., and JOHNS, R. L. "Providing for Kindergartens and Junior Colleges in the State Minimum Foundation Program," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXXIII (December, 1947), 486-90.

Describes the plan developed in Florida for establishing and financing a state-wide kindergarten and junior-college program. An early decision of the Citizens Committee which probed the problems involved was against the idea of providing separate appropriations for the new kindergartens and junior colleges. Consequently the financial arrangements were to be developed as an integral part of the minimum foundation program of the state. In Florida the county is the local administra-

tive unit of educational control. The foundation program, instead of including merely instructional salaries and other current expenses, or including these costs plus transportation, also includes provision for capital outlay and debt service. "In other words, the Florida program recognizes the fact that an adequate program of education is not possible in many of the less wealthy counties unless all necessary functions of an educational program are included in the state guaranteed foundation program."

A brief digression in the discussion occurs at this point in order to present the equalization formula for determining the minimum foundation program for Grades I through XII. The difference between this computed cost of the foundation program and the required local effort is provided from state funds. In the expansion of the educational program, it was decided to include junior colleges in the minimum foundation program for counties which were in position to meet required minimum standards and were willing to make an extra local tax effort. "In such counties the number of instruction units was required to be determined on the basis of the average daily attendance of junior-college students. The training of teachers required was likewise used in determining the percentage of units to be used in multiplying by the apportioning schedule. Provision was also made for additional transportation, for other current expense, and for capital outlay, in determining the cost of the program including junior colleges. An additional 5 per cent in the way of local tax effort was likewise required of counties which could qualify for the establishment of a junior college. Counties were required to meet certain desirable standards as a basis for establishing junior colleges and assuring that the financing of the junior-college program would not interfere with the financing of the regular school program."

The basic standard on which capability for maintenance of a junior college is determined is population. Any county having a population of at least fifty thousand or two or more small counties having a combined population of at least fifty thousand were authorized to co-operate in providing a junior-college program in one of the counties

to meet the needs of all co-operating counties. In addition to this general criterion, the location of a proposed junior college must be approved in accordance with standards prescribed by the State Board.

This plan, it is held, has the advantage of being simple and of avoiding special appropriations, which present serious problems of maintaining a balanced program. "The entire program, including kindergartens and junior colleges, may thus become a part of the minimum foundation program for all counties in the state which are in a position to meet the standards and are in a position to make the necessary effort required. The foundation program for the twelve grades is mandatory; that for the kindergartens and junior colleges, for the present, is optional, but if at any time circumstances warrant, it can also be made mandatory."

REYNOLDS, JAMES W. "Extending Secondary Education Vertically," *School Review*, LVI (February, 1948), 76-84.

Discusses the issues believed to be involved in the question: Should high schools extend their program to include Grades XIII and XIV? Reynolds indicates that two major issues are involved: (1) Does the proposed change promise satisfaction of the educational needs that are indicated by observable trends of social evolution? (2) If so, does the proposed change represent the best method for satisfying these needs? To both of these queries a positive answer is reached in the discussion.

To support the stand that vertical extension of secondary education promises satisfaction of the needs that are indicated by observable trends of social evolution, Reynolds examines five trends: the declining employment of young people, occupational trends indicating the need for higher-level education for vocations, the growing complexity of society, changing social demands for the education of adults, and the influence of democracy as a social ideal. Summarizing, he says: "These trends have indicated needs for an educational program including the following features:

activity for the increasing number of youth who are not being absorbed in the labor market; vocational preparation at an advanced level, particularly for semiprofessional occupations; better preparation for non-vocational aspects of life, such as health, citizenship, and homemaking; opportunity for adults to keep pace with social change; and a program characterized by democratic principles. In connection with each of these needs it has been shown that public junior colleges of a type identical with that proposed not only can meet these needs satisfactorily but actually are doing so."

Approach to the second issue is made by a quick screening of educational agencies with respect to their development of programs sufficiently comprehensive to satisfy the aggregate needs of vocational and general education for youth and an educational program for adults. "This screening process leaves for consideration three organizations: the local public junior college, the state or regional public junior college, and the public universities or four-year colleges. In the ensuing discussion, it should be recalled that the local public junior college is virtually a vertical extension of secondary education." Relying chiefly on the basic research on the subject carried out by Koos, Reynolds discusses the relative merits of the three types of institutions identified. The local public junior college is shown to be superior because it accomplishes more advantageously the goals of democratization of educational opportunity and integration of the secondary-school program.

In conclusion, the author asks three questions. In answer to the first, "What should be done in the many areas of the country in which elementary education is as yet inadequately financed?" it is held that additional sources must be utilized to provide adequate financing for the whole public-school system. Recalling the developments that occurred during the depression years, the author cautions: "It is, however, pertinent, to recall that, if local high schools do not provide needed services, other agencies will. The needs are too real to be dismissed."

The response to the second query, "Do the needs for further education exist with equal force in all sections of the country?" is a frank "No." "The difference is one of degree, however, and not of absence or presence. Moreover, in all sections the needs are being intensified. . . . The question, then, poses the problem of how long any section, in the face of this evolutionary process and of the principle of equal educational opportunity, can say its need for such a step is insignificant."

Finally, to the question, "Does the proposed step eliminate the need for all other agencies engaged in providing some, or all, of these educational services?" the response is again in the negative. "It may mean a clarification of the true functions of the other agencies and even an elimination of those few for which no real need exists. This reorganization, however, cannot be considered an undesirable result."

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